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ALBERT EDWARD McKINLEY 1870-1936*

On February 26, Albert Edward McKinley, editor and founder of *The Historical Outlook* (now *The Social Studies*), closed his long career as an educational pioneer. While illness had made it necessary for him to drop many of his activities during the last five years, he had been able to continue teaching until a short time before Christmas, 1935.

Dr. McKinley began his professional life at an historic moment in educational history. His plans for college had been molded by the announcements of the experimental reorganization of the University of Chicago, and he graduated in 1896 in the first class under the new régime. He returned to Philadelphia to teach history at the then young and struggling Temple University, and to begin graduate work in American history at the University of Pennsylvania under McMaster and Ames.

Three interests characterized his work from the beginning: research, the collection and organization of source material, and teaching methods. He prepared a doctoral dissertation, later enlarged, which became the standard work on the subject, *Suffrage Franchise in the English Colonies*. He also engaged with Dr. Ames in a thorough survey of the archives of Philadelphia and in the publication of an elaborate report for the Public Archives Commission of the American Historical Association. But it was his third interest that was to dominate the others and upon which it is most appropriate to dwell at length in the pages of this journal.

Very early in his educational experience, Dr. McKinley became interested in developing laboratory techniques in connection with history. Various devices appealed to him and he turned his hand to producing projects, blank maps, statistical tables, outlines, work books, and texts. Before this time there was very little in the way of material available and what was at hand was too expensive for general school use. In order to market his ideas, Dr. McKinley became his own publisher, starting out quite simply—distributing his maps and charts from his home. The business grew and in 1900 he established the McKinley Publishing Company.

At the turn of the century much was in the air regarding the proper quality

* Dr. McKinley was born September 11, 1870, in Philadelphia, son of Albert Barnes and Margaret Johnson McKinley. He graduated in 1888 in the first class of the Central Manual Training High School, first in his class. For several years thereafter he worked in the Charles Scott Spring Works and attended night school at Temple to complete his preparatory work for college. In 1903, he married Miss Jessie Willits, who died a year ago. They are survived by four children—Albert E., Jr., A. Willits, C. Scott McKinley, and Mrs. Margaret Kenworthy.

and quantity of the history teaching that should be developed in the primary and secondary-school systems. The American Historical Association took the lead in promoting the interests of the subject in the various school curricula and appointed several committees. Their reports gained wide circulation and were the subject of constant discussion and debate. As a result, instruction in history developed extensively in the schools, more teachers were initiated into the ranks, and experiments of various sorts advanced. The development of teachers' organizations naturally followed and with organization came meetings, papers, exchange of ideas, committees, reports, programs ad infinitum. Regional associations began to form and one of the most active was the Association of History Teachers of the Middle States and Maryland. Dr. McKinley was prominent in this group, frequently participated in its discussions, and in 1913-1914 served as its President.

All this cerebation and discussion suffered in effectiveness for lack of printed circulation. There was no forum which could reach a wider audience than that of an association meeting. There was, however, the possibility of creating an organ which would carry the various and sundry contributions and criticisms to the generality of the profession. With this in mind, Dr. McKinley associated with himself a group of editors and in 1909 launched *The History Teacher's Magazine*, which his company financed.

The purposes of this journal were announced as follows:

The History Teachers' Magazine is devoted to the interests of teachers of History, Civics, and related subjects in the fields of Geography and Economics.

It aims to bring to the teacher of these topics the latest news of his profession. It will describe recent methods of history teaching, and such experiments as may be tried by teachers in different parts of the country.

It will give the results of experimentation in such form that they may be of value to every teacher. It will keep the teacher in touch with the recent literature of history by giving an impartial judgment upon recent text-books.

It will give announcements of meetings of Teachers' Associations and accounts of their work. It will furnish personal facts when these will be of interest to the teacher.

Its columns being open to the questions and contributions of every history teacher, it will serve as a clearing-house of ideas and ideals in the profession of history teaching.

It kept such objectives consistently in view and was soon valued as a successful venture.

As the reputation of the magazine grew, the editor was faced with the fact that financially it did not pay for itself and the question of its survival arose. At this juncture the American Historical Association stepped into the picture; in 1911 its council began a series of annual grants and appointed a committee of supervision. Fortified by this vote of confidence and endorsement Dr. McKinley carried on the venture with increasing success. In the meantime he had become Dean of the College of Arts and Science at Temple University and had put into effect many of his precepts, directing this growing institution toward higher standards of teaching and better methods of organization. In 1915 he was called to the University of Pennsylvania to give courses in the then recently organized

School of Education, and in the college and graduate school as well. He organized a course in the teaching of history, and for a subject-matter specialty turned to American history since the Civil War.

The outbreak of the World War found Dr. McKinley at the height of activity and effectiveness, ready for a new task. The influence of war psychology upon the teaching of history is too vivid to need a lengthy chronicle. The strategic position of history in the interpretation of the causes and ideals of the struggle was immediately apparent. The American Historical Association organized to meet the emergency by creating a National Board of Historical Service to preserve records of the war and to promote the honest interpretation of its causes and aims. *The History Teacher's Magazine* immediately became one of its organs. War supplements appeared monthly containing much material for use in the schools. Dr. McKinley was placed in charge of War Aims courses in the schools of Pennsylvania. In connection with this work he published a manual of *Collected Materials for the Study of the War*, and with C. A. Coulomb and A. J. Gerson collaborated in writing a *School History of the Great War*. We all now realize the propaganda nature of much of this historical teaching but as far as history teachers were concerned they were generally unaware of its character. Dr. McKinley realized the danger and early in the war wrote: "There is one sacrifice no historian must make. He must not distort or pervert the facts of history to aid the present struggle."

The war interest brought a larger audience and a new opportunity. To meet this, Dr. McKinley changed the name of the magazine to *The Historical Outlook*. The change was described editorially as follows:

With this number a new name appears upon our title page. In adopting the name, THE HISTORICAL OUTLOOK, the editors and publishers have had in mind two aims which they have held for some time.

The first of these is the desire to view the present and prepare for the future by a sane understanding of the historic past. It is not their aim to glorify the good old times of other days. Nor do they wish to hamper and restrain our actions to-day by a blind adherence to historical precedent. They do hold, however, that as citizens, or as teachers, we should retain an historical outlook upon the present. They believe that a knowledge of the historic roots of the present is necessary to intelligent thought and action upon our current problems. As no business or professional man acts by chance, but in the light of the experience of his own life and of his profession, so, today, the citizens of all the great states of the world should view the momentous problems of political and economic reconstruction in the light of the past attempts at their solution. If THE HISTORICAL OUTLOOK shall serve in only a small degree in emphasizing this point, and in furnishing materials for sane judgments, its editors will feel repaid for their labors.

In the second place, the term "outlook" is used in the sense of a survey of the work of historians. It is the aim to help readers, students, and teachers of history by guiding them to books and to methods which will be of immediate assistance in reading and teaching. Reports of new methods of teaching history and the social sciences will be given. News of historical associations will appear, and reviews and book lists will act as guides to new literature. The features which have made "The History Teacher's Magazine" so useful to teachers in the past will be retained, while these teachers and other readers as well will be encouraged to take a broad historic view of present-day affairs.¹

¹ *The Historical Outlook*, IX (October, 1918), 378.

Under the new title the magazine flourished and took on a wider significance. More subject-matter articles were welcomed to its columns and its reviewers covered a much wider range of books. During the fruitful period Dr. McKinley joined with A. C. Howland and M. Dann in writing two texts, *World History in the Making* and *World History Today*. He served as president of the Pennsylvania Federation of Historical Societies in 1921 and his work at the University of Pennsylvania expanded. He organized a seminar in Pennsylvania History and developed an undergraduate course in American Economic History.

In these post-war years a new interest gathered force and displayed itself frequently in the academic world. Subjects such as geography and civics in the secondary schools and economics, political science, and sociology in the colleges and universities both reached out, above or below, and made contact with each other. All of them, to some extent, made use of historical material and method and in the growing urge for organization the possibility of mutual exchange and coöperation became the educators' pet project. The "social studies" was a new phase, and in 1921 various representatives of these groups formed the National Council of the Social Studies of which Dr. McKinley became president. The various claims and objectives of these numerous subjects developed so rapidly and haphazardly as to produce a great deal of confusion. The American Historical Association thereupon took steps leading to the creation of a Commission to study and clarify the confused maze of "Social Studies." As the labors of this body came to an end Dr. McKinley gave over the editorial control of his magazine to the American Historical Association so that it might serve as an organ for the continuation work necessary because of the labors of the Commission. *The Historical Outlook* thus became *The Social Studies*. Dr. McKinley retained the title of editor, though ill health prevented much more than a nominal relation.

But no bare enumeration of activities even though they be manifold ever fully reveals the man. One needs to know that he and Mrs. McKinley created a home with a truly remarkable feeling for family and kindred. One needs to know that his colleagues always found him coöperative, conscientious, and willing to carry even more than his share of the load, sometimes to his own cost. One needs to know that he was a faithful teacher and a loyal, generous friend, who in the face of sorrow and ill health in his later years was courageous to the end. Such are the real achievements which are the true measure of the man.

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The Use of Periodical Literature in Social Studies Classrooms

A REPORT OF A PRELIMINARY INVESTIGATION BY A COMMITTEE OF THE
NATIONAL COUNCIL FOR THE SOCIAL STUDIES

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Evidence as to the lack of understanding on the part of secondary-school students in regard to current economic, social, and political issues has led to considerable doubt as to the effectiveness of social-studies teaching in the schools. This has been the basis of numerous attacks upon the program, and the contention that the schools are failing to develop abiding interests in the world of affairs. Obviously, the task of training intelligent citizens who are willing to participate in the duties involved cannot be left entirely in the care of the social-studies program. If this aim is to be accomplished, we must center all of the forces, not only of education, but of influences beyond the school as well, around a unified and consistent system devoted to that end. Nevertheless, even though social-studies teachers are not willing or able to shoulder the entire burden of citizenship training, there are certain contributions which we, because of the nature of our subject matter, are in the most strategic position to offer.

It would be impossible to attempt to enumerate here all of the vital elements of which an adequate social-studies program should consist. It may be stated, however, and we think without disagreement, that a satisfactory program must include, among other things, a plan to train pupils to think discriminately, to be able to recognize and guard against propaganda, to be able to read and think about current problems, to observe the functions and operations of governmental, social, and economic institutions, and to be able to eliminate prejudice and superstition. In short, we must equip pupils with desirable attitudes toward the present world of affairs and a desire to participate in the constructive solution of public problems. In order to be able to take an active part as adults, these students must be acquainted with the sources of material and methods of reading and be provided with such a background of fundamental information as will make these problems more understandable and enhance the possibility of satisfactory solution.

There is little justification for the assumption that the attitudes, skills, appreciations, generalizations, and information which are regarded as basic objectives of citizenship training will grow out of social-science material merely because of the nature of that material. If the study of past civilizations is centered chiefly around political history or if the emphasis is placed upon memorization of certain places and events, we can hardly assume that students will be adequately trained for effective participation in citizenship. Further, it may be asserted that the

desired results will probably not be obtained even in courses with broader objectives if the material is restricted to the traditional chronological or even to the more recently favored unit or topical plan, if the material in such courses is not definitely related to present-day situations. The connection between past events and present problems must be drawn, and the students must be purposefully led to use current material and, in their consideration of controversial issues, to gather and evaluate factual material in an impartial manner. For many years effective teachers have realized the desirability of relating course materials to present situations and have been striving to accomplish this end.

Such a conception of social-science teaching demands that schools be provided with the most scholarly and most recent publications. Such reports as that of the Commission on the Investigation of Recent Social Trends, census reports, and periodical material become an indispensable part of the teaching materials of the modern school. The committee wishes to emphasize the point that throughout this report the term "periodical materials" is used to include newspapers, pamphlets, radio broadcasts, and other sources of current news in addition to magazines.

The importance of periodical materials has been widely recognized. In order to make a specific effort to investigate the nature of their use, the National Council for the Social Studies sponsored a nation-wide investigation. In January, 1934, Dr. Howard E. Wilson, president of the National Council, appointed a committee composed of Mrs. Margaret A. Koch, Prudence Trimble, Julian C. Aldrich, John R. Davey, George C. Mosely, R. H. Mowbray, D. E. Temple, and Roy A. Price, chairman. This committee proposed to: (1) Survey this field throughout the United States to discover the extent to which magazines and newspapers are being used in connection with social-studies teaching. (2) Discover the types of magazines and kinds of material within magazines which teachers of social studies consider most valuable. (3) Discover those methods of using magazines which have been found most effective in social-studies classes.

It was decided to circulate a questionnaire to gather the necessary information. Teachers were requested to indicate the per cent of their class time devoted to the use of periodical material, the type of periodicals used, the frequency of publication preferred, the chief difficulties encountered in the use of magazines, the names of periodicals used, the most useful types of periodical materials, and the items which would improve magazines for classroom use. In addition to the items listed above, there were three other types of information requested. These three parts of the questionnaire are listed below to give readers an idea of the form of the questionnaire used, and to suggest certain objectives, methods of use, and pupil activities which might be valuable.

THE QUESTIONNAIRE

1. Please check those educational objectives which you expect to realize by use of periodicals in the classroom.
 - _____a. To develop appreciations.
 - _____b. To develop leisure-time interest.

- c. To motivate subject matter.
 - d. To establish connections between subject matter and present-day situations.
 - e. To train pupils to read discriminatingly.
 - f. To train pupils to read about and think about current problems.
 - g. To train students in observation of the functions and operation of governmental, economic, and social institutions.
 - h. To train students to recognize and guard against propaganda by special interests.
 - i. To bring students to realize that we live in a world of rapid social change, and to develop attitudes of coöperation
 - j. To eliminate prejudice, superstition, provincialism, and chauvinism.
2. Below are six brief summaries of methods of using magazines. If you use one of these methods, please place a check opposite that method. If you have found another method useful, please summarize your method in a similar method.
- a. Each article selected by the teacher is assigned to several pupils who read the article and prepare reports for the class. One pupil gives a floor talk which is commented on by the other pupils who have read the article. The topic is then discussed by the entire class.
 - b. Pupils are requested to bring to class articles which interested them and to tell the class about these articles.
 - c. Each pupil in the class subscribes to a particular magazine which is to be used by the entire class. Articles in each issue are assigned to the entire class and later their content is discussed in class.
 - d. Assignment of two articles on the same subject by different authors is followed by comparison and discussion to develop ability to read discriminatingly.
 - e. The students of the class are assigned a topic and are expected to search in all available periodicals to find information on that topic in order to get as much data and as many points of view as possible. After this assimilation work has been completed, the pupils discuss the topic in class.
 - f. The classroom is regarded as a laboratory. Students work individually both in class and during homework periods in collecting data regarding problems developed at the beginning of the unit of work. The teacher in this case serves chiefly as a guide in individual cases and there is practically no recitation by the whole group.
3. Check below the activities which you require pupils to complete in the use of material presented in periodicals.
- Discuss the material in class.
 - Read certain passages aloud in class.
 - Formulate thought questions on the passages read.
 - Give a special report or floor talk on the topic.
 - Engage in a debate.
 - Write a theme.
 - Make a paragraph summary or précis.
 - Make an outline or brief.
 - Draw a picture or cartoon.
 - Draw a chart, graph, or table.
 - Memorize a certain passage.
 - Take a new-type examination.
 - Take an essay examination.
 - Prepare a notebook.
 - Draw a map.
 - Build models.
 - Collect pictorial material.

The printing costs of the questionnaire and mailing expenses were defrayed by the *Scholastic Magazine* and their mailing list was used. Marked copies of

the questionnaire were returned directly to the committee. One thousand copies of the questionnaire were distributed. Seven hundred and fifty copies of the questionnaire were sent to high-school social-studies teachers on a general list. It was not known whether any of these teachers had used or were using periodicals for classroom purposes. Two hundred and fifty copies of the questionnaire were addressed to social-studies high-school teachers who were known to have used some periodicals. This division was used to secure the reactions of an unselected group of teachers and also to get results from teachers who had experience in the use of contemporary material. It may be noted here that almost all questionnaires for which replies were tabulated indicated that the teachers who answered the questions are now using some form of periodical. The number of copies sent per state was figured by percentage based on secondary-school population. For example, New York, with 572,260 students, received 120 letters, while Nevada, with only 4,768 high-school students, received only two letters.

Two hundred and forty-four replies have been received to date and all are included in the tabulation for this report. Replies were received from forty-three states and the District of Columbia. The geographical distribution indicates that all sections of the country were represented.

The first obvious point which should be made is that less than a third of the teachers made replies to the questionnaires. It is interesting to speculate on the reasons for silence. Several possible answers can be given. The most serious of these would be that the majority of teachers are not interested in the use of periodicals or that they do not consider these materials sufficiently valuable to justify the use of class time. In the light of the writings of specialists in this field and myriad public questions pressing for solution, this seems hardly tenable. A second answer is that teachers found themselves too busy to take the time to answer this rather lengthy form. This seems the more probable. A third answer would be that the majority of teachers do not use periodical material for many reasons such as expense, limited time, etc.

We may assume that the opinion presented in the replies received is somewhat more favorably inclined toward the use of periodicals and also the experience somewhat greater than that of the total number of social-studies teachers. This follows from the fact that in almost every case the teachers represented who replied are now using periodical material. We believe it is safe to conclude that the practices reported here are superior to the average.

A consideration of the chief difficulties encountered by teachers in the use of periodical material, as indicated by replies to the questionnaire, would seem to warrant considerable thought. The fact that in the 244 schools from which replies were received subscription costs are defrayed by pupils in 42 per cent of the cases, by schools and pupils in 28 per cent, and by schools alone in only 14 per cent leads to several possible conclusions. The argument that such study is not sufficiently significant can hardly be granted. Undoubtedly, the basic cause of this condition is that school administrators do not have sufficient funds at their disposal to provide these materials. Study of the number of subscriptions

per school reveals that even where such materials are provided, the demand is only partially met in a great majority of systems. Educators cannot escape this problem by merely placing the blame at the hands of the community in view of the fact that sufficient funds are not provided. The point of this argument is that we must re-examine the objectives of our training program to justify the expenses which *are* incurred.

Closely related to this point is the second difficulty met by teachers. Forty-three per cent of the teachers replying to the questionnaire indicated that they were too busy meeting the information requirements of their courses to allow time for study of current periodical material. This seems to indicate that teachers are willing to place the requirements of a course syllabus on such a high pedestal that they feel themselves justified in disregarding this vital part of the training needed to support the educational philosophy which we claim to follow. Perhaps, if the objectives of our program were to be re-examined in the light of advanced educational thought, teachers might feel themselves so hurried by these new requirements as to find a limited amount of time for the traditional and seemingly sacred requirements. Perhaps, also, the administrators finding their burden of textbooks, reference works, and workbooks lightened would be able to provide funds necessary for the purchase of current periodicals. If the objectives which are met by the use of periodical materials are found to be valid, then it would follow that the information requirements must be reduced; if it is found that periodical use is not significant, then it must be discontinued.

Evidently teachers were quite willing to ascribe to the objectives listed. The average teacher who replied checked six out of the ten listed. Rather naturally, the place of greatest prominence was awarded to training pupils to read and think about current problems. This was checked by 91 per cent of the 244 teachers. Almost as prominent was the establishment of connections between subject matter and present-day situations. There were no great differences in rank among the other objectives listed. The significant fact, however, is not that all of the objectives listed were checked by many teachers, but that such objectives as the development of appreciations, training pupils to read discriminately, and training pupils to recognize and guard against propaganda by special interests were not more frequently checked. If it is true that almost 50 per cent of teachers using periodicals do not believe these to be legitimate objectives of their work, is it not a rather severe indictment of the program which is now being used?

Current-events courses and the use of current materials in courses which had already been established gained a place in the secondary-school curriculum rather easily. Perhaps many of the weaknesses in the program can be traced to this fact. There is evidence that this important phase of social-studies teaching was introduced before sufficient attention had been given to the questions of when periodical materials could be used and how they could be used most effectively. The fact that almost half of the teachers replying to the questionnaire do not consider the objective of training pupils to recognize and guard against

propaganda by special interests to be significant, or at least do not attempt to achieve that objective in the use of periodicals, lends weight to the argument that the method of use is rather haphazard and indefinite in its objectives. The replies to others of the objectives listed support the argument.

Naturally, consideration of objectives leads to the question of method. Here we find a situation which is even more serious than that disclosed above. It would seem that teachers not only do not have their objectives clearly defined but also that they have no clear-cut plan of using periodical material, or agreement as to how the objectives to which they ascribe are to be accomplished. For purposes of illustration, let us investigate the problem of training pupils to read discriminatingly. Sixty-three per cent of the teachers included in the tabulation checked this as an objective, the realization of which they expected to achieve through the use of periodicals. Even that percentage seems small in view of the importance of this work. It is more disconcerting to find that only 27 out of 244 teachers checked method "d," which is particularly intended to develop discriminating reading. How may we account for this apparent inconsistency? The first obvious answer is that teachers do not have time to realize that objective. That question has been discussed above. The second answer is that we have not yet clarified our objectives and have not developed methods of teaching consistent with the objectives to which we ascribe in theory. This point is emphasized throughout the investigation. There seems to be no connection whatever between the amount of time devoted to the use of magazines or the objectives which teachers are striving to accomplish and the methods used. It is impossible, therefore, for this investigation to reveal a final answer in regard to the methods which are best suited to the various aims of teaching.

Study of the facts in the tabulation leaves the impression that the average practice is to request pupils to bring to class articles which interest them, or to allow committees or student leaders to choose the topics of study. In the great majority of cases these articles are reported on in floor talks and then discussed by the class. Pupils are allowed freedom in choosing their subjects, to lead the discussions, and in some instances to participate in the discussion or not, depending on whether they are interested. This attention to pupil interest and the socialization of the discussion periods is certainly to be desired, but there is little evidence that in the majority of cases there is that guidance and direction which are indispensable if the study is to be more than aimless and endless wandering. Perhaps the questionnaire itself did not provide opportunity for teachers to disclose in sufficient detail the methods which are being used. Teachers must be responsible, in the use of periodical material, as well as in any other part of the teaching program, for the development of pupil interest by motivation, making adequate assignments, directing the study process, and testing the achievement of pupils. There are no definite statements which indicate that some teachers are centering their work about definite objectives, adapting method to meet these objectives, and stimulating and guiding the work in their classes to the accomplishment of these ends. Such practices are invaluable and should be investigated further in order that teachers may have a definite plan and method suggested to them.

At present, there is too much reading for the sake of reading words. Emphasis of the objectives on the part of teachers should lead students to read constructively for the purpose of correlating the information given with the instruction of the course. This tendency to emphasize reading for the sake of reading is evident also in the fact that the majority of teachers use periodicals in 20 per cent of the class time. The usual practice is to set aside one day each week for the consideration of periodical material. We believe this rather rigid and formal time schedule regiments the work to the extent that the material may not be as meaningful as it would be if assignments were made when and as they could be satisfactorily placed in the work of the unit.

A case in point because of its tremendous public appeal at the present time is the topic of the Italian invasion of Ethiopia. Undoubtedly, this topic is being studied at the present moment in many social-studies classrooms throughout the nation. From the study of the replies to the questionnaire it might be argued that the usual classroom method would be to ask pupils to bring to class articles on the topic, or the directions might not go further than to ask pupils to bring in articles which interested them, hoping that one or more pupils would bring in reports on the Ethiopian situation. The pupils would have that assignment for the lesson of a particular day of the week. This is inferred from the frequency of mention of 20 per cent of class time devoted to periodical material. The reading of the pupils would then proceed without direction in most cases. They would read in any manner which appealed to them and select those items of information which struck their fancy. Upon coming to class "prepared" for their current-events lesson, the work would proceed by means of organized reports by individual students followed by discussion by the entire class. It might be well to examine just a few of the weaknesses inherent in such a procedure. The first is that without definite planning and direction on the part of the teacher, the selection of material and the preparation by the student is certain to be haphazard and aimless. Reading materials may be confined to a single source, thus confirming the student's acceptance of the printed word as fact and without any realization of the conflicting points of view available. Setting aside a particular day of the week for current events or the use of the periodical material makes an arbitrary organization, which may destroy the opportunity of connecting the subject matter of the course with the present-day situation. Such study should make more meaningful the material which students are studying in other parts of the course. Without this connection it is more than likely that periodical materials will not be founded upon a sufficient basis of factual information to be significant and justify the expenditure of time, effort, and money.

Contrast the picture above with that of a teacher who was determined to utilize the study of the Ethiopian conflict for the purpose of throwing light upon the development of cultures and civilization. He might see that Italy's desire to expand might help to explain the study of surplus population and population density; that it might illustrate how the geographic factors of a nation will contribute to the development of their type of culture; that the climatic setting of a society will help to determine the type of roads, transportation, government, and

vocations of the people of that society; that the desire for trade and material resources is a potent factor in international relations; that the efforts of other nations may help to explain arbitration and the League of Nations; that the economic system in Ethiopia might help to illustrate the study of the feudal system. Whether he happened to be teaching economics, history, sociology, or government, he could draw upon this source of material. He could also find evidence of differences of opinion and conflicting reports, which would help him to teach pupils to discriminate in their reading, to suspend judgments and many other desirable ends, including the ability to solve problems. His lesson would be definitely planned with the above elements in mind and the material would be organized into an integrated whole with the subject of study for that particular period. He would not depend on random interests for motivation, but would definitely develop motivating schemes to implant these interests. He would assign such material after careful selection and at such time as it could be effectively used to supplement and make more meaningful the material of the course. Pupil activities definitely related to the subject matter to be used and to the objectives which he hoped to attain would be utilized and the achievement of pupils carefully measured.

Many of the teachers who replied were kind enough to write in numerous activities which they found useful. These activities are presented below, not in the sense of constituting an ideal list of pupil activities for teaching purposes but to present those activities which teachers have found useful and which demand further study. For example, items 10, 15, and 16 in the list of method suggestions are, in the opinion of the committee, open to serious question. The reader should regard these lists as evidence of the results of the study rather than as the recommendations of the committee.

METHOD SUGGESTIONS

1. Permit a student leader to work out his own plans, make assignments, and lead the discussion.
2. Organize the class with a president, secretary, etc., for discussion purposes.
3. Prepare a mimeographed list of controversial points in the material and assign these to the students for discussion.
4. Teacher assigns a list of thought-questions to be answered by students.
5. Teacher prepares a list of names, places, and events which pupils are expected to identify.
6. Teacher suggests a group of articles of which the students select the most appealing for study.
7. Organize study groups for certain topics.
8. Require pupils to supplement articles read with visual aids, additional reading, personal experiences, etc.
9. Encourage advanced students to read more extensively.
10. Each pupil brings five questions to class to ask the teacher, who is questioned during the entire period.
11. Assign a special country to each pupil for a long period of time, requiring pupils to find articles in periodicals pertaining to their topics.
12. Teacher prepares a bibliography of articles on topics studied in class. Each pupil is required to read three articles each six-week period and make a written report covering (1) a brief summary, (2) the relation of the articles to the material assigned, and (3) his reaction to the articles.
13. A student committee selects the articles to be studied.

14. Divide the class into groups (national, international, local, etc.). Pupils choose their own topics.
15. Provide for silent oral reading. A student desiring to speak of an article which interests him does so informally and others listen or enter into discussion as they like. If not interested, they continue their own reading.
16. Regularly require one and one-half pages of written material about current events of the week, and oral discussion of these topics.

SUGGESTED PUPIL ACTIVITIES

1. Write a class newspaper in connection with English class.
2. Make an objective test.
3. Report on additional points from other sources.
4. Dramatize events.
5. Use material to carry out a project, such as conducting an election, holding a convention, surveying conditions.
6. Plan and give a current-events assembly program.
7. Keep notebook of important personages.
8. Identify flash cards of pictures of persons, glossary of words, leading sentences of news.
9. Fill outline maps.
10. Take a trip to the local newspaper office.
11. Listen to radio broadcasts on current events.
12. Participate in a current-events match.
13. Plan and maintain a current-events bulletin board.
14. Collect clippings.
15. Write and act one-act plays on current topics.
16. Write a term paper.
17. Keep a cartoon notebook.
18. Make a scrap book.
19. Maintain a "hot spot" map of world events.
20. Form a current-events club.
21. Write summaries of articles read.
22. Prepare a list of fact and discussion questions.
23. Obtain viewpoints of various persons in the community.
24. Prepare a collection of pictures, mounted on cardboard, of famous persons, with comments about each.

That educators are not entirely responsible for the weaknesses in the use of periodicals is shown by the fact that there is an insistent demand for a clearer style of writing. It is very evident that teachers who are working with students, and therefore qualified to pass judgment, believe that even those periodicals which are edited specifically for classroom use have two very definite weaknesses. The first of these is that the style of writing employed is not clear and that the vocabulary is definitely above the comprehension of adolescents. The crowded condition of our public schools places a terrific burden upon teachers, and demands that every effort be made to make their work as light as possible. Publishers might take a long stride in this direction by preparing teaching materials which lighten the burden rather than add further complications. These should include a greater number and variety of visual aids. It is beyond question that the study of current problems must be centered about the underlying forces which created these situations.

Publishers might make a definite contribution in this field also by preparing study plans which point the direction in which such materials should lead and

aid teachers by suggesting (1) points of correlation with the material of other subjects, (2) connections to be drawn between present conditions and past events, and (3) by preparing well-constructed objective tests, thereby providing a definite measure of accomplishment. Reactions of teachers to the last section of the questionnaire indicate that these are outstanding needs.

If we may be permitted, in summarizing, to go even further beyond the scope of the particular study upon which this report is based, our comments would be as follows:

CONCLUSIONS

1. The importance of leading pupils to think about current problems is self-evident. It has been said that the subject matter of social science is a fabric in which the thread of controversy appears very frequently. Training for citizenship necessarily involves training pupils in a method of solving social, economic, and political problems.
2. If social-studies courses are to realize the lofty aims which have been set forth, current events must be made an important part of every course in history, government, civics, economics, sociology, and problems of democracy. It does not follow that every course should devote a definite per cent of class time to the study of current materials but it is essential that social-studies materials be linked to present situations, and for this purpose current materials may be found useful.
3. The current practices in the use of periodical material confirm the criticism of Professor Henry C. Morrison, namely that courses in modern problems "lead pupils into dark holes and then blow out the candles." One day each week is set aside to "set pupils to thinking." The objectives of this program cannot be achieved by setting aside one day each week, it is not adequate merely to set pupils to thinking. The process must be motivated and directed toward a method of thinking about vital current issues. Dr. H. E. Wilson, in writing on this point, commented that "merely to set him (the student) to thinking is the initial stage of a process of which the final stage is the conclusion. . . . The true objective involves filling in gaps between the beginning and the ending; it involves training pupils in how to solve socio-economic problems."
4. It may be argued that it is ridiculous to expect secondary-school students to solve weighty problems which have perplexed even our statesmen and most advanced minds. The burden of this argument is that we are not to teach final conclusions but rather to concentrate on such elements of the thinking process as open-mindedness and suspended judgment. We must train citizens who will be responsible and who will be willing and able to act in a given situation, realizing that the basis of their action is a hypothesis that they have reached by careful thinking, with all the facts available at the time, but that they will also be willing to revise, if necessary, in the light of future events.
5. Traditional thinking about the sacred place of the textbook must be revised. There should be a textbook and there should be as many scholarly reference books as can be obtained, but the memorization of factual material from these sources cannot be regarded as the ultimate objective. These books may be conceived as a reservoir of information from which pupils will draw the background, understanding, causes, and proposed solutions which are to constitute the basis of their thinking about present situations.

Officers of the National Council for the Social Studies have urged that the committee continue its work so that, by means of a supplementary study, the actual detailed methods used by teachers can be discovered and evaluated. This further step will be taken and the committee chairman, the writer, would appreciate any suggestions from readers as to the scope of further study or method. If any readers are sufficiently interested to desire to take part in making the study, their coöperation will be appreciated.

Organization for Curriculum Revision*

HORACE KIDGER

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It seems to me that it is not too sweeping an assertion to state that the curriculum in social studies is more unsettled at the present time than it has ever been. Perhaps this unrest is the natural outgrowth of the increasing importance of the social studies in the modern school set-up. Many of us can remember when the study of history and of government was considered as relatively unimportant, and placed in a position secondary to those subjects which were thought to be fundamental. Today the position and function of the social studies is considered of primary importance. Thus, the question arises, "Why is revision of the social-studies curriculum necessary?" There are several possible reasons. One factor may be the influence of public opinion. Crime is increasing; most of the criminals are young men, many of whom have been exposed recently to training in our schools or have left school because it has been unattractive. Many persons are asking whether the schools are functioning if they are not helping to turn out more desirable citizens. The further query is raised whether the young women and young men of our country are loyal. Have they the right to question institutions and customs which have been long established?

Are the pupils too internationally-minded or are they not sufficiently so? Is international-mindedness desirable or is it not? Should one's attitude, in this particular, change with passing decades in somewhat the same way that one's opinion of the evil of feminine smoking changes? Are the ears of the school authorities properly close to the ground so that instruction, or lack of it, in internationalism may put the patriotic conscience at ease? Are the schools fulfilling their duty if the pupils find too much in foreign countries which they deem worthy for an American to copy? Have the schools fallen down in that they have not trained pupils to secure evidence on all sides before accepting conclusions? These are some of the indictments which have caused educators to view critically the curriculum.

There have been factors within the educational system itself which have resulted in curriculum revision. In some cases, the superintendent of schools, who because of his ability to pass more objectively upon the existing situation in his school system, may have been the motivating factor. In other cases, it may be the outgrowth of dissatisfaction of teachers on various grade levels who have felt that the work of their grade has not been carried on logically in a higher grade. Again, there may have been a feeling on the part of some teachers on higher grade levels that work below has not prepared the way properly for the task at hand. There may be a conviction that there is waste with the accompanying deadening of interest by the duplication of material in succeeding or near grades. There may be an idea on the part of some teachers that a given grade course is

* Paper read at the Fifteenth Annual Meeting of the National Council for the Social Studies, November 30, 1935, New York City.

better organized in some other community. There may be a belief by some that an entirely new course or the inclusion of new material would be of great advantage. Finally there may be a growing conviction, on the part of the teachers themselves, that the charges brought from outside the school present, in fact, a true bill and that the needs of the pupil are not being met by the existing curriculum.

If a curriculum revision is to be made, the question arises who will do it in order to bring about the most effective results? This question creates another: What are the most effective results? The new curriculum should be one which has not only the approval but the enthusiastic support of the entire corps of social-studies teachers to make it effective.

There are several methods of bringing about curriculum revision. The first to be considered takes into account the fact that the average teacher is very busy, especially so since the local financial necessity brought on by the depression has compelled him to carry a heavy schedule and large classes. Should he not be happy to accept any new curriculum which the powers above decree, without question, in the meantime breathing a sigh of relief that any needed changes may have come into being without further burden on him? Such curriculum revision may be brought about by the superintendent and the person in general supervision of the social studies for the community or, if no one person has such supervision, by the three persons under whose direction are the social studies respectively in the first six grades, the junior and the senior high school. This may be rather strenuous for the supervisors, but it is a splendid example of benevolent despotism for the laboring social-studies masses.

A second method that might be designated is the vicarious sacrifice method. This is a mollification of the benevolent despotism method. Instead of a group of three or four heads creating a full-grown Athena, about a dozen heads become necessary for the creation of the completed curriculum. This group will include, in addition to the supervisors, about three persons chosen by each of the supervisors of the three grade-level divisions. This group offers itself as a sacrifice so that the rest of the social-studies-body politic may exercise its inalienable right of the suffrage of approval in the least painful and least bothersome way.

A third method merits the title of the democratic way. In its application it contains many elements of the project method as applied to teachers instead of to pupils. This method like any other venture in democracy entails effective direction. The seen or unseen direction, which has made the project method so successful, must be present under the control of a steering committee. This committee should have as members the supervisors as well as a few teachers chosen by the vote of the entire group. While the decisions of this committee should be directive, the final approval should rest with all the social-studies corps or with sub-committees of their creation.¹

There should be at least two large main committees on curriculum content,

¹ The third procedure outlined here is the one which is being followed in most particulars in the social-studies-curriculum revision which is being undertaken in the Newton Public Schools.

one for the first six grades and one for the last six grades. It might be wise to have a committee for junior high school and one for senior high school instead of a committee for the last six grades as a unit. However, it must be borne in mind that these main committees should have representatives of each of the three grade-level divisions in order that the unity of purpose of all social studies from grade one to twelve may not be lost. Another main committee of great value should be the one devoted to research, whose function should be to bring to the attention of the content committees salient features of curriculum progress in progressive school systems.

Yet another main committee might deal with methods, paying attention to successful procedures locally as well as in other school systems. It would seem logical to find out first what should be the underlying goal or goals of all social-studies teaching. What should have been the effect upon any pupil exposed to a twelve-year course in the social studies? In a democracy, frank discussion will bring out varying viewpoints. Hence, it may be well to have meetings of all the teachers on given grade levels directed by sub-committees of the above mentioned general committees. Such grade-level forums may create a real rather than a passive interest in curriculum-revision problems and may make all the teachers realize that the curriculum revision is a coöperative endeavor in which their opinions are of value. Such a consciousness often leads a modest teacher to feel it her duty to impart to the group teaching achievements of great value which might never have been shared otherwise. There will probably be another result of such sub-committee forums. When the collective wisdom of the groups has been epitomized, it will be found that emerging from all the grade-level group generalizations will appear a central theme which might be labelled as an underlying philosophy. In addition, there will be definite stated outcomes, skills, and attitudes sought on each grade level. It may be profitable to compare this coöperatively-arrived-at philosophy with that set forth in curriculum outlines of other localities. However, such outstanding courses seem to vary chiefly in the phraseology of the underlying philosophy.

The next step should be one of evaluation of present practices in the school grade-level courses. Once more sub-committees can serve as splendid leaders in conducting another series of forums from which will emerge an exposition of what is and of what might be. When this confession of sins of commission as well as omission has cleared the grade conscience, the next step should be the seeking of a holy example to follow in order to attain salvation. Such deliverance may come from within the school. It may be hidden in the practice of some particular school or teacher. Justification may be found not only by faith in the best in a local practice, but by the deeds set forth in a curriculum elsewhere. However, there should always be a warning. Because a doctrine may seem alluring, it should not be embraced until its converts have shown its justification. Difference is not justification for acceptance. Because another community has a different curriculum, it does not of necessity follow that it is superior.

As the new curriculum takes shape, certain fundamental aims should always

be present. There must be a constant realization that each grade is building not a structure complete in itself but rather a wing or an ell; that the design of each particular wing must be such as to harmonize with the general plan; that, instead of each unit appearing as a separate unrelated entity, it should add purpose and effectiveness to the whole structure. Each grade curriculum must aid in building an effective twelve-grade program. Again, there must be a realization of a growing and developing outlook to fit a growing child. Moreover, there must always be in mind the seriousness and imperativeness of continuing character building and training in present good citizenship attitudes.

The outstanding weakness, which must be recognized by any group seeking curriculum revision, is that practically all senior high-school courses in social studies make character education and orientation incidental throughout the course rather than stressing both these essentials during the first year of senior high school, that is in Grade X. Effective citizenship in school, as indeed in later life, results from intelligent, coöperative, citizenship. Accordingly, in Grade X, a course in school citizenship should be required for all pupils. This course should have no home work required but should feature an explanation of all regulations of the school with a statement of reasons for their existence, as well as a discussion of the advisability for changing or amending school laws. The power of the school legislature should be examined and an estimate made of the effectiveness of that body. Cases involving actual situations in the school should be considered, as well as the correct or incorrect conduct involved.

Two logical necessities should always be in the fore in any curriculum revision. The first is the need for a twelve-year program of social studies with no hiatus in any of the senior high-school grades. The second is the necessity of making the social studies in the upper grades the core of all instruction, as it is in the lower grades. The final observation is that curriculum revision is not complete when a tentative curriculum has been drawn up. A really effective curriculum is an ever-growing one. It must develop through experimentation and practice. The curriculum organization must continue as well as the opportunity for teachers to discuss, in forums on grade levels, the effectiveness of content inclusion as well as techniques or procedures.

Stated briefly, organization for curriculum revision, to secure the best results, needs to be along democratic lines, constantly molding the final product in conformity with the epitomized opinion of the groups. Only such organization can create the real teacher interest which is essential for such an undertaking. Curriculum reorganization should have ever before it the vision of a twelve-year sequential program and of the contributions which each unit should make to the entire undertaking. Only through the constant application of the practice of trial and amendment can its success be achieved.

The Idea of Probability and the Teaching of Politics

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Some time ago, the present writer suggested that education means, in part, the development in the student of an "ability and willingness . . . to adapt himself positively to new and unexpected political and economic situations";¹ that the teacher's function, besides familiarizing the student with past and contemporary social phenomena, is to present his materials in such a manner as to render this result inevitable; and finally, as a part of the method in furthering this development, the inculcation of the basic notion of uncertainty. This earlier paper was devoted largely to the idea of uncertainty, but the writer did suggest that if the teacher can no longer surround the principles of politics and economics with an aura of certainty, he can, at least, impart to the student, as a basis of thought, the much more mature and realistic idea of probability.

Occasionally one has the impression that both the teacher and the student assume rôles of subservience in relation to political and economic principles; that these principles are static rules to be revered. In reality, such so-called principles, purporting to contain "the truth," do not exist; furthermore, these principles (better termed hypotheses) are not to be respected any more than one respects a screw-driver or a gasoline motor. Both of these instruments are useful for certain purposes, but if they fail to realize the purposes for which they were created, we cast them aside. Hypotheses, likewise, are mere tools, instrumentalities "with which to experiment."² Hypotheses are the instruments and the tools of man, for his use, not for his reverence.

If we turn for a moment to the field of the natural sciences, we find that the philosophical scientists have broken away from the classical conception that "science deals with a determinate universe and must therefore aim at propositions that are demonstrably true."³ In its place they have substituted the more reasonable notion of probability. "However solidly founded," says the great Poincaré, "A prediction may seem to us to be, we are never absolutely sure that experiment will not prove it false."⁴ Lewis declares that the search for ultimate truths is no longer useful to science "except in the sense of a horizon toward which we may proceed, rather than a point which may be reached."⁵ After all, continues Lewis, "is it necessary to decide as to the existence of all these ultimates and absolutes, and especially as to the existence of an absolute truth? If we once overcome the childlike notion that every act is either right or wrong,

¹ C. Gordon Post, "The Idea of Uncertainty and the Teaching of the Social Sciences," *The Social Studies*, XXVI (April, 1935), 226-227.

² John Dewey, *Human Nature and Conduct*, 239. New York: Henry Holt & Co., 1922.

³ Morris Cohen, *Reason and Nature*, 125. New York: Harcourt, Brace & Co., 1931.

⁴ Henri Poincaré, *The Foundations of Science*, 155. New York: The Science Press, 1913.

⁵ Gilbert N. Lewis, *The Anatomy of Science*, 7. New Haven: Yale University Press, 1926.

that every statement is either true or false, that every question may be answered by a 'yes' or 'no,' we still recognize that with our present knowledge there are some statements which are more probable than others."⁶ The business of science would seem to be not with certainty but with what is most probable. Scientists have discarded even the hope of attaining the absolute certainty; instead of searching for the truth, they now seek the approximate.

The scientist, says Lewis, "does not speak of the last analysis but rather of the next approximation."⁷ It does not seem unreasonable to aver that the two bases of scientific thought are the twin ideas of uncertainty and probability.

The scientist has adopted these notions despite the fact his subject matter admits of a relatively large degree of control. Admitting the great complexity of both social facts and facts in the realm of natural science, the former are rendered even more complex in so far as they are of a less repetitive nature, admit of less direct observation, present greater variability, and often forbid the isolation of one factor at a time. The natural scientist, after all, can repeat his experiments; he has at his disposal guinea pigs, chemical reagents, and apparatus of all sorts; he can repeat, under conditions set by himself, his experiments for the purpose of verification. The social scientist, on the other hand, does not have this advantage. The Russian revolution occurs; it cannot be repeated several times for the purpose of more exact observation; furthermore, such an event, or as is preferable, process, cannot for reasonable comprehension, be deprived of consideration of political, economic, psychological, historical, geographical, and religious factors. Not that the social and natural sciences are mutually exclusive.⁸ But the former "may be said to deal with the life of human beings in their group or associated life."⁹ involving all manner of conditions which cannot be set by the individual and which do not admit of ready repetition. As thus stated, it would seem that the natural sciences permit a greater degree of predictability than the social sciences.

This being the case, can we establish our hypotheses of politics or economics on anything other than the complementary bases of uncertainty and probability? If uncertainty and probability underlie all social hypotheses, is it not logical that the teacher of the social sciences should attempt to condition the student, intellectually and emotionally, to an acceptance of these ideas?

Individuals too readily forget that their forefathers once subscribed to astrology, the existence of witches, and the notion that the earth was a flat body;

⁶ *Ibid.*, 9.

⁷ *Ibid.*, 6.

⁸ Cohen, op. cit., 334. "We should view them as dealing with parts of the same subject-matter from different standpoints. The social life of human beings is within the realm of natural events; but certain distinctive characteristics of the social life make it the object of a group of special studies which may be called the natural sciences of human society. . . . We may, if we like, draw a sharp line between physical and social anthropology, between physical and economic geography, and perhaps even between individual psychology as a natural science and social psychology as a social science. But the distinction is in any case a thin and shifting one. When we come to the study of linguistics or of epidemics, or to the various branches of technology, we see the breakdown of all the sharp separations thus far suggested between the natural and the social sciences."

⁹ Cohen, op. cit., 341.

individuals also forget that the present is very much a part of the historical process and look upon society, though turbulent in its development, as static. It is the belief in this myth of social immutability that tends to further dogmatic teaching, and inhibits realistic, honest thinking. The perpetuation of this myth defeats the very purposes of education. It results in a willingness to dwell in a world of antiquated ideas; a willingness to impose old theories of politics and economics upon the altered forms of new and ever changing conditions. It results, also, in the development of politically maladjusted students and citizens.

The *Century Dictionary* defines the term "probability," in part, as follows: "that state of a case or question of fact which results from superior evidence or preponderation of argument on one side, inclining the mind to receive that as the truth, *but leaving some room for doubt*."¹⁰ This is the important thing, the important attitude—"room for doubt," no matter what the principle or hypothesis. One means of avoiding the dangers, suggested in the preceding paragraph, is the predication of all political thinking upon two important assumptions, namely, uncertainty and probability. And, it is the business of the teacher to indicate to his students the validity of these assumptions; to secure their acceptance by the student; and to base all his teaching upon them.¹¹

¹⁰ The italics are my own.

¹¹ The writer is not forgetful of the fact that much political thinking is wishful thinking; but, is not wishful thinking derived, in part, from the desire for certainty?

Acceleration of Social Change, 1911-1935

JOHN STARIE

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This analysis, with omissions as indicated because of limitations of space, was made by an undergraduate in the University of New Hampshire under the direction of Professor Donald C. Babcock, University of New Hampshire. In his "A New Social Function for History," Historical Outlook, XXI (January, 1930), 16-19, Professor Babcock presents the background and point of view on which the present analysis is projected, a preservation of the cultural continuity of one generation with another. The author as an undergraduate reflects on his own life and experience, selects those areas in which social change has been rapid with resultant changes in behavior patterns and problems of adjustment, and develops his analysis of patterns with insight and candor.

The materials, we believe, will be suggestive for social-studies teachers making analyses of materials for curriculum changes and revisions as well as for individual and group projects for students.—The Editors.

THE PERSON

1. Food

A. Solid food

- i) Oranges and grapefruit: These were not so common in my boyhood as they are now; to receive an orange then was a choice reward.
- ii) Breakfast: The decline of the American breakfast is one of the most noticeable changes in our culture. Whether one views breakfast as the "coffee and coffee-roll" meal of the college boy or the "fruit, cereal, toast, and coffee" of the average home, this change from the meat, beans, and pancake era is undeniable.
- iii) The hot-dog: See under automobile.
- iv) Commercial canned goods: Together with a whole list of other items.
 - (a) The can-opener: The symbol of our era, from the humble old-fashioned instrument to the wall fixture, with all the variations between.
 - (b) The junk-heap: Not a new feature but slightly different from the "pre-can" days. The prevalence of rusted tin cans along our roads is a striking example not only of American taste but of the waste in our industrial life.
 - (c) Decline of home canning: Noted in towns and cities rather than in the country, where, if any change is found, it is of the reverse order.
 - (d) Variation in meals: One of the greatest results of the canning industry. Asparagus in winter, soups which formerly were luxuries, fruit of all kinds out of season, fresh fruit formerly unobtainable in certain localities, are a very beneficial part of our social change.

- (e) Release of women from the kitchen. Other factors than the can are involved, but that is one of the most prominent.

B. Drinks

i) Cocktails

- (a) Fruit and tomato: This is largely a prohibition development, but one that seems destined to linger for some time. In my somewhat austere youth, a dinner began with soup. Now one is quite declass   if some form of cocktail is not served.
- (b) Alcoholic: In addition to the prominence of the drink itself in our social life, a whole pattern is built around it.
 - (1) The cocktail hour: Usurps the position of four-o'clock tea in many homes.
 - (2) The cocktail bar: a prominent feature of modern restaurants and hotels.
 - (3) The cocktail shaker and glasses.
 - (4) The cocktail gown: Comes under clothing, but is included to keep the pattern complete. . . .
 - (5) The cocktail party: Associated with the cocktail hour and the cocktail bar, this is a modern social function more or less informal, frequently displacing the formal tea in sophisticated society and usurping many of its functions.
 - (6) Literature: Like bridge, cocktails have done much for the printing business, with recipe books for the various mixtures as common as cook-books in many households. . . .

- ii) Iced tea and coffee: Tea as a beverage is more or less an anomaly in the United States. It is never made right and is somewhat pallid in its constitution. The tea-ball, for instance, is practically banned in English society; the whole culture pattern that surrounds tea in England is also lacking here. However, the iced-tea and coffee pattern seems definitely to have become a manifestation of the summer months. Like the cocktail it has a pattern of its own, varying from the lemon slice to the ice-cube and the tall glass, sometimes with the hollow spoon.

2. Clothing

- A. Children: Has not changed much since my boyhood. Fewer stockings, less clothing in general, sun-suits, etc., are about the only indications of change.
- B. Women: Various changes in fashion come and go. The main trend in women's dress, however, seems to be towards disappearance. During my boyhood, mother wore skirts that swept the floor and tended towards fullness, except during the war when the hobble-skirts came into vogue. Dresses were high in the neck and long in the sleeve. They inclined towards tightness at the waist (the waist, incidentally, as a part of female anatomy, has disappeared and returned during my life-time). Her hats were wide-brimmed and covered with feathers or flowers. On the street

she usually wore a veil, shrouding her entire face. Shoes were plain; stockings were cotton or woolen. Underclothing was long, made of wool or cotton. Good stiff, unyielding corsets were a memorable part of her attire. Elderly women of the period all wore "throat-binders" of lace and whale-bone, ghastly creations.

Mother's full-dress bathing costume consisted of a sleeveless blouse, full skirt, and heavy bloomers, together with an old pair of black stockings which usually turned green after they had been in the water once. Muffs were part of winter attire, but fur coats don't seem to have been so common; at least mother never had one. All the above have vanished, within the span of twenty years.

- C. Men: Changes in men's clothing, except for one or two instances, seem to exist only in details. For instance, where is the derby hat of yesterday? In my youth they were common; now if a traveling salesman wears one he is a rarity. The frock coat has also disappeared. Once the correct attire for ministers, politicians, undertakers, and others, it has given way either to the academic gown, or the cutaway. In evening dress a tuxedo is now "proper" for anything except very formal occasions. Also we have the white dinner jacket, the mess jacket, and the colored tuxedo, all of which would have horrified the worthies of my birthplace.

Almost vanished is the pleated shirt front. My father used to wear such a shirt on Sundays, and it took my mother hours to iron it. Starched detachable collars we still have with us, for middle-aged men and for evening dress, but modern youth does not know those three-inch affairs that my father wore.

Cuffed pants are more or less an innovation of the last few years. Long woolen underwear which used to be the bane of the winter months has given way to brief shorts for all year wear, and recently to the various types of "Scandals."

My father's earliest bathing suit that I can remember stretched from his shoulders to his knees, had very small armholes, and a skirt. This should be contrasted with the present bathing trunks, the most modern of which are merely a breech clout. While only three or four years ago the highest trunks were taboo at most bathing beaches. . . .

In my boyhood very few men wore wrist-watches. I suspect that the war was responsible for the change, with the automobile and other modern factors playing their part in popularizing this form. Where pocket watches linger, the chains are less massive and the watches are thinner.

One really revolutionary phase of modern clothing is the zipper. Appearing on men's clothing it has changed a whole culture complex in his dressing habits. The old pattern of button hole and button has to be largely unlearned. Applied to bags, pocketbooks, jackets, dresses, bathing suits, and other articles, the zipper has revolutionized many culture patterns.

- D. Pockets and pocketbooks: . . . In a woman's pocketbook are likely to be found the following articles which would not have been common twenty years ago: vanity case, cigarette pack or case, matches or cigarette lighter, "bobby pins" in place of the old-style hairpin, fountain pen or pencil. Those few articles tell a great deal about the changing habits and position of women.

THE HOUSE

1. Furniture

A. The kitchen

- i) Refrigeration: Change is largely one from ice to electricity or gas, during recent years.
- ii) Stove: From the old-fashioned wood or coal stove of my boyhood, to some form of oil, gas, or electricity. Oil and gas were both in use then, but not commonly. Electricity has only recently been generally adopted for heating purposes.
- iii) Electrical appliances
 - (a) Automatic iron.
 - (b) Toaster—the toasting fork and the open fire become a disappearing pattern.
 - (c) Waffle iron.
 - (d) The percolator: the old coffee-pot has almost entirely disappeared, even on camping trips, with better coffee and greater convenience.
 - (e) Hair curlers and dryers.
 - (f) Mixers and squeezers. All of these appliances have done a great deal to revolutionize the patterns of kitchen work.
- iv) Metal kitchen furniture ("monometal").

This latest development in kitchen furniture tends to displace the old drab sinks and cupboards that were part of my boyhood and are still prevalent in many houses.
- v) Aluminum kitchen ware: Just coming into use during my boyhood. My mother was prejudiced against it at first; but now the bulk of her utensils are aluminum.
- vi) Stainless steel: Gone is the pattern of weekly knife cleaning.

B. Dining and sitting rooms

- i) Lighting: The old-style central electric fixtures of my boyhood have largely given way to individual lamps. Candles have returned to the dining-table, an example of the force of tradition.
- ii) The central parlor table, around which the family would sit, has disappeared entirely. Furniture is now arranged in conversation groups or around a central focus such as a fireplace.
- iii) Rocking chairs have largely disappeared, remaining only as huge over-stuffed ones, or as porch chairs.
- iv) Open book-shelves and particularly built-in ones have come into

style, with a wider range of shape and size than formerly. The old glass cases have largely gone out.

- v) The central carpet that was tacked down and padded has been displaced by hardwood floors and scatter rugs.
- vi) The studio couch is something new, and probably traces its origin to the apartment where space is small.
- vii) Chairs and couches tend to be larger with more over-stuffed pieces. The "mission" type has died.
- viii) The tea wagon has either come into style or has grown in popularity during my life-time.
- ix) The fireplace has largely returned to popularity for reasons of appearance and comfort. In my boyhood they were usually bricked up because of their inefficiency.

C. The cellar

i) The furnace:

- (a) Oil burners: These are rapidly becoming the most common form of furnace. Completely automatic, they have done away with the necessity for shoveling coal and for removing ashes.
- (b) Automatic stokers: This is a modification of the old type of furnace.

- ii) The basement room: With the abolition of the old coal furnace, it has been possible to use the storage room that was left vacant for another room, which is usually a play room.

D. Bedrooms

- i) Twin beds, and individual lighting.

2. Structure of the house

- A. The small house: The five or six-room house is rapidly replacing the old large-family house for the middle-class. This reflects the decline in the size of the family. There is also a change in the architecture, and we now have varying forms such as the "dutch colonial," the English, the "Cape Cod cottage," and others.
- B. Imitation brick: A variety of shingle.
- C. Fire-proof shingles: The old wooden shingle is being rapidly ousted by asbestos or other fire-proof material.
- D. The breakfast nook: Another indication of the decline of the breakfast as a social institution and of the small-sized family.
- E. The sun-porch: An entirely new idea in house construction with its roots in the modern belief in sunshine.
- F. Garage: Perhaps the most notable change in the modern house. Instead of the barn and its connections that were popular in my boyhood, we now have the garage, either separate, or more commonly built into the house.
- G. The living room: This combination of sitting room and parlor reflects the changes in the ideas of comfort and decoration, in the changing habits of the reception of visitors, and in the changing habits of courtship.

3. The grounds

- A. Landscaping: Less lawn and more shrubbery around the modern house, with an increase in the beauty of the home.
- B. Rock gardens.
- C. Garden ornaments: A wide change from the last expression of the stone and iron stags and dogs to the modern bird baths, mirrors, and wooden animals on stakes.
- D. Garden furniture. . . .

COMMUNITY LIFE

1. Stores: A whole paper could be written about the evidences of change in the development of the modern stores. From the purely individual store of 1911, we now have in every small village one or more "chain" stores, which reflects several other changes in our social life, such as development of refrigeration, . . . the development of the tin can, and its adoption by society, . . . the development of the automobile. . . .

Among the minor evidences of change in stores are the following:

- A. Saloon, "speakeasy," state liquor store—the pattern of development in one field alone.
 - B. Store-front: Modern store of the purely functional design of modern architecture, with the lines of the exterior giving it height; white concrete, outlined in black stone, covers the supporting pillars, and the remaining wall space is filled with glass; glass windows framed in aluminum or chromium. . . .
 - C. Display-cases: Functional in design, usually made of metal and glass, in contrast to the old wooden ones, and frequently equipped for refrigeration.
 - D. More adequate screening in stores than formerly.
2. and 3. [Schools and Churches omitted.]
 4. Travel:

- A. The automobile: In my early boyhood, a car was a rarity; one ran to see a motor car going down the street; a ride in one was a very special treat given by wealthier friends. In twenty years, however, the car has changed American life almost entirely, including the following new patterns.

- i) The Mechanical pattern: a separate culture pattern for harnessing the horse, another for hitching him to the buggy, and a third for starting and stopping have changed simply to "key, starter, clutch, gear-shift, brake, and off," with a revolution in time-saving.
- ii) Feeding pattern: The old dictum that a good horseman always fed his horse before he fed himself has passed with the coming of the automobile. Instead of shaking down hay and oats into the manger, adjusting the water supply to the temperature of the horse, or the adjustment of the nose-bag, we have the customary "Five, please." This is a simple procedure in which all work is done for the driver

instead of by him. A mechanical contrivance which needs to be fed only when it is in operation is a great advance in convenience over the horse which needed care all the time.

- iii) Roads: Apart from the more fundamental changes in habit, the most conspicuous change has come about in roads. From the dirt roads of my boyhood, and the few "crowned" tarred roads that were considered great developments, we have come to rely on smooth wide concrete, with banked curves, and warning signs wherever necessary, together with route numbers so that we cannot easily get lost. We have passed through the growth of the roadside advertisement and are now watching its decline in prestige, together with the demand for landscaping on the newer roads. It is a question whether, apart from the increased speed, we haven't lost something of the charm of the countryside in these roads that are nearly always straight, and that slash through barriers with a complete disregard for appearances. The sight of a forgotten curve where a new road has been straightened, is sometimes a mute reminder of an age that was not in a hurry to get some place for no particular reason.
- iv) Filling stations: These mushroom affairs with their complete disregard for all the tenets of architecture and aesthetics have influenced enormously the eating habits of people; the phrase "one with mustard" has become a request which twenty years ago would not have been understood. In rural districts, filling stations frequently become the rural club houses, usurping the position once held by the corner store.
- v) Tourist accommodations: Camps and hostels are really symbolic of a nation on the move, and are a tremendous change from the old "Railroad Hotel" of a generation ago. They are a subsidiary industry developed from the automobile and a good illustration of the acceleration of invention as well as an industry which is not entirely removed from the home, yet which is large enough to hold conferences at state universities and come under regulation of government boards. The tourist camp is also a force in displacing the old summer hotel situated within carriage distances of a railroad.
- vi) Road maps: Their prevalence throughout the country, given away as a part of the "service" of gas-stations, has led to an enormous increase in the popular knowledge of roads and their condition.
- vii) Mobility of population: A subject worthy of separate study, with only an indication of a few of its major ramifications. The history of American people has largely been that of their mobility; and even when the large-scale movements of the nineteenth century are considered, there does not seem to have been a time when so large a body of the population was so continuously on the move. First we

consider the mobility of industrial workers. Seasonal laborers wander all over the country from the California fruit season to the early vegetable season of Florida, practically living in their cars.

Factory workers tend to live away from the factories, and business men commute from distances of thirty or forty miles. Oversight of large-scale chain organizations has largely been made possible by the automobile, and salesmen can make house-to-house canvasses by its means. Secondly, the mobility of the general population includes such phenomena as Sunday driving, pleasure tours, which involve a greater acquaintance with the country, and the outlet provided for the restlessness of youth. The main effect of this phenomenon has been the breakdown of Sunday observance. Thirdly, the phenomenon of hitch-hiking is ever-present, especially with college students. This campus is a good example. The majority of the students live anywhere from 40 to 100 miles from home. Only in recent years has it been possible for them to get home and back over a week-end without it costing them a cent. This habit of week-ending away from the campus has done a great deal to disintegrate campus life, so that a college has really become a place to recover from the exertions of a week-end. On the other hand, it has a few good features. A certain zest and romance in it drain off the adventure-call of youth without doing any great harm.

Then there is the really valuable social training gained through meeting different types of people and adapting one's conversation to them. In one afternoon I have ridden with a former strike-breaker, a salesman, a broken-down farmer, and a house-wife. There is also the pattern of the raised thumb, the traditional best stances for "bumming" along the route, and the reputation that certain towns (Exeter especially) get for being difficult "bumming" places. Finally there is the psychological change involving a lack of dependence in one's own motive power and an almost childlike trust that some one will stop sooner or later.

- viii) Motorized police and criminals: Mobilization of criminals led first to the breakdown of local police systems, the centralization of authority in the state and federal forces, the outbreak of large-scale crime including the rumrunner and the gangster, and the small number of criminals arrested. One of the most interesting results has been the collapse of the state-line as a halting place for police authority and the centralization of certain types of police authority in the hands of the federal government.
- ix) Outdoor advertising
- x) "Parking":
 - (a) Town and city, change in (1) appearance of streets; (2) shopping habits; (3) municipal parking grounds; (4) commercial

parking grounds; (5) police duties; (6) judicial duties and court system; (7) vocabulary.

(b) Country, change in

(1) Marriage customs

Actual courtship carried on in a car rather than in the front parlor; more runaway marriages over a greater territory than formerly; honeymoon customs.

(2) Sex mores, with the car as one of the bases for prostitution, and the evolution of the road house.

xi) The death rate

xii) Car insurance:

(a) Compulsory third party liability; (b) fire; (c) theft.

xiii) Other phenomena:

(a) The "Ford joke"; (b) installment buying; (c) "keeping up with the Jones"; (d) rapid style turnover; (e) large-scale trucking and large trucks; (f) motorized fire equipment.

B. Aeroplane . . .

C. Vocabulary . . .

D. Lake travel . . .

E. Railroads . . .

F. Submarines: Another war time development . . .

G. Radio control . . .

H. The decline of the horse and buggy.

One of the most important patterns now gone. Together with the decline of the horse for business purposes, however, we find that it is used more for pleasure and exercise in horseback riding than formerly, so that summer camps make a specialty of its instruction. It is somewhat significant that nowadays we have to say "horseback riding" instead of merely "riding" in order to make our meaning clear. Other patterns that are passing out of use with the horse are the hitching post, the watering trough, the horse sheds around churches, the stable, and to some extent the local blacksmith.

5. Recreation:

A. Dancing: The forms of the dance changed with the introduction of jazz, as well as the general attitude towards it. We have now dancing "a deux" with the two partners very close together, doing more or less intricate steps that are dependent on syncopated music. The modern attitude is one of tolerance, so that we find churches holding dances for their young people. As a part of its pattern, we must consider the night club, the country club, the purely commercial dance hall, probably situated in the country or on a lake shore, and the taxi-dancer. As a part of the superficial pattern we have such modern innovations as the stag line, the custom of cutting in, and the battles of music staged in large dance halls. Undoubtedly the modern dance is both a symptom of and a cause of the change in sex mores.

- B. Bridge: There is nothing particularly new about cards as a form of recreation. The extent to which bridge, both contract and auction, is played today, however, is something new in the history of recreation. It has become less of a game and more of a business for many of its players. A few culture complexes resulting from it are worthy of study:
- i) The bridge club: An almost universal phenomenon in American life; it is found in the village, the town, and the city. The fact that women, particularly, can arrange to meet once a week or oftener for playing bridge is symptomatic of the increased leisure that has come to them in the last few years. Bridge has come to be the chief social function for many women.
 - ii) Commercialization:
 - (a) Professional players
 - (b) Literature
 - (c) Tournaments by professionals
 - (d) Bridge favors and articles: (1) cooky cutters; (2) ash trays; (3) table covers; (4) bridge furniture; (5) lamp styles; (6) automatic dealers, etc., etc.
 - iii) Entertainment:
 - (a) Smaller and more intimate parties devoting the entire evening to bridge.
 - (b) Refreshments tend to be lighter, to be influenced in form by the very cards people play with, with a greater dependence upon the delicatessen store by women who devote their afternoons to bridge.
 - iv) The bridge widower: A species of the male sex part of the fauna of towns where bridge clubs predominate. His usual characteristics are his ability to wait for his dinner until his wife returns from the club, to eat a cold dinner probably purchased on the way home, and to listen with complete happiness to the recital of his wife's triumphs or her partner's misdeeds. He is usually an unassuming person who would like a good poker game but doesn't quite dare suggest it.
 - v) Bridge has superseded poker in college dormitories almost entirely, with the disappearance of a good deal of the gambling associated with poker.
- C. The Country Club: Associated with the automobile, with dancing, and with bridge, the country club, which once existed mainly as a golf club, has become a major phenomenon in the recreational life of the United States. One of its chief results has been to take entertainment away from the home and to cause people to rely on outside activities for their recreation.
- D. Sports: These have developed in two ways, first in the spectator attitude, involving large-scale commercialization of high-school and college games, and the greater development of professional games; and second in the actual participation in many sports. There are probably more people play-

ing tennis and golf, more people swimming, more people playing squash and handball, than twenty years ago. Such games as football and baseball have become commercial enterprises in schools, involving the purchasing of players, large-scale advertising, colossal buildings, and unfair practices. A third phenomenon of these sports has been the development of Sunday baseball and horse racing. This is part of the breakdown of the religious sanctions, of the automobile pattern, and of the economic system which allows only one day of leisure for the masses. Another interesting development is found in winter sports, which now involve such things as "snow trains," "snow bulletins," expensive equipment, and winter carnivals. Part of the development in New England has been due to the activities of the state advertising department and to the development of New England as a recreation center. This in turn devolves upon the decline of industrial life in New England and the necessity of exploiting the natural beauties of the region.

- E. Radio: Perhaps the most popular indoor sport of the last ten years has been listening to the radio. From the commercial angle, this is strictly a product of the more recent years. It is, like many other things, a rather mixed blessing. For its beneficial results one lists:

- i) Increase in musical appreciation
- ii) Educational features adapted to the school
- iii) Educational features adapted for rural regions
- iv) Closer contact between government and people
- v) Some degree of pure entertainment

In the more harmful results one sees the following:

- i) Excessive commercialization through the sale of advertising time resulting in the increased sale of patent medicines, etc.
- ii) Excessive use for propaganda
- iii) A good deal of very poor entertainment
- iv) A decline in self entertainment, making people more reliant on outside sources.
- v) Community noise, partly through individual sets, through sets in stores, and through advertising machines.

THE WORLD AT LARGE

1. The League of Nations.
2. Communism.
3. Fascism.
4. Transoceanic and transpolar flights.
5. Technical achievements.

MENTAL LIFE

1. Religious.
2. Scientific.
3. Political philosophy.
4. Literature.

The Literature of American History, 1935*

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Two tendencies—the term is at once too pretentious and too precise—can be discerned in the historical literature of the past few years. There is on the one hand a demand, best expressed, perhaps, by Charles A. Beard, that the writing of history be articulated to some recognizable framework of reference; that, in short, the historical philosophy implicit in all written history be given more explicit expression. "Any selection and arrangement of facts pertaining to any large area of history," Beard has said, "is controlled inexorably by the frame of reference in the mind of the selector and arranger. . . . The supreme issue before the historian now is the determination of his attitude to the disclosures of contemporary thought."¹ On the other hand there is the fact—at least I think that it is a fact—that American history as it is being written does not reveal any awareness of an historical philosophy, and is not related, consciously, at least, to any frame of reference.

Dr. Beard has suggested that only three broad conceptions of history are possible: that history is chaos, that history moves in a cycle, and that history is an evolution in some discernible direction. If these are indeed the alternatives, it is difficult to avoid the conclusion that American historians are writing history as chaos. Certainly it is impossible to discover in the historical literature of the past year—and that is typical enough—evidence that would support either of the other two alternatives. There are, of course, certain obvious assumptions implicit in almost all of our scholarly literature, but those assumptions are so broad as to be irrelevant. There is the assumption that truth is worth knowing and is knowable; there is the assumption that the discovery of facts about American experience will have some value, intellectual or aesthetic, for some persons; there is, commonly, the assumption that liberty is desirable and democracy admirable and a capitalistic economy natural and that Protestant Christian ethics are worthy. But these assumptions have long been with us and they do not largely illuminate American history nor the significance of America to world history.

Particularly interesting is the apparent reluctance of American historians to accept the implications of the theory that history is written in harmony with some individual or social philosophy, that history is subjective. Some of those implications have been pointed out by Rexford G. Tugwell and by Charles A. Beard and have been endorsed by the American Historical Association. "Our history" writes Tugwell, "illustrates . . . a collectivistic seed, germinating unseen . . . and finally possessing the whole nourishment of earth. . . . Can we not show how our history tended always to this end. The time is ripe for just such a conspiracy."² And in the *Conclusions and Recommendations of the Commission*,³ the American Historical Association, though more concerned with the teaching than the writing of history, gave to this idea its official blessing. The writing of American history does not reveal any awareness of this particular "frame of reference" nor indicate any anxiety to participate in the "conspiracy." It would be

* Unless otherwise noted, the books and articles mentioned have been published in 1935.

¹ "Written History as an Act of Faith." *American Historical Review*, XXXIX (January, 1934), 219-231.

² R. G. Tugwell and L. H. Keyserling, eds. *Redirecting Education*, Vol. I, 31. New York: Columbia University Press.

³ New York: Charles Scribner's Sons.

difficult to discover, from an examination of the literature of American history of the last two years, whether America was moving toward a collectivist or a *laissez-faire* social order. If history is movement, Beard has said, echoing Henry Adams, it is important to know in what direction we are moving and toward what end. No answer has been vouchsafed us to this question.

The helter-skelter individualism of American historical literature is not unwholesome. When a philosophy of history lends itself so readily to the distortion of truth and the denial of reason as it has done in Nazi Germany, in Soviet Russia, and in Fascist Italy, we may rather congratulate ourselves that we have not as yet agreed upon such a philosophy or trained ourselves in the use of the tools of indoctrination. Yet this is not to say that the absence of philosophical history or of philosophies of history is a matter for congratulation. There is an important difference between a historical philosophy and philosophical history, and the unwillingness of American historians to interpret their material is a matter of concern.

It is indeed not a little curious that the nation which, according to Loria, was to "reveal luminously the course of universal history," the nation which, according to Henry Adams, was to formulate the laws and the science of history, should have produced so few philosophical historians, so few philosophies of history. Alone among American historians Henry Adams attempted to formulate a philosophy of history; alone among contemporary historians Charles A. Beard has attempted to develop one. If we are to judge American historical literature by the product of the last few years it must be admitted that there is a conspicuous want of interest in interpretation. We speak somewhat glibly of "economic interpretation," but even this is for the most part a convenient shibboleth rather than a reality and our historians give to it, all too commonly, mere lip service. It cannot even be said that there are schools of American history. William E. Dodd, for example, is an historian who has been concerned with the interpretation of his material, and he has had some influence, yet the recent volume of *Essays in Honor of William E. Dodd by His Former Students*⁴ reveals a community of interest rather than of interpretation. This same generalization, I think, applies to most of the recent volumes of memorial essays: they present an integration of interest in subject matter rather than a common philosophy.

II

Though we may not find any philosophy of history permeating the historical literature of the past year, it is possible to discover certain characteristic emphases. These emphases do not differ in essentials from those which we noted for the year 1934. There is an increasing awareness of the importance of the study of economics for the proper appreciation of political or constitutional history or of individuals, and Karl Marx is often invoked though not always understood. There is a natural tendency to take the present as a point of departure for an investigation into the past—to trace out the historical origins of those problems, those institutions, of momentary concern. There are laudable though sometimes awkward gestures toward an integration of the social sciences. There is a remarkable emphasis upon the biographical approach, an emphasis so extreme that history as such has all but disappeared: whether this tendency toward biography is to be ascribed to the great-man theory of history, to a concern for box-office receipts, or merely to laziness on the part of both reader and author, is not easy to say. There is a sustained interest in regionalism, an interest which

⁴ Chicago: University of Chicago Press.

again reveals itself more impressively in the novel than in the historical monograph. There is a more hearty and more mature awareness of the importance and the dignity of genuine American institutions, an effort to discover what is characteristically American, whether it be patch-work quilts or covered bridges or lighthouses or cooking or communistic communities. The pseudo-sophistication of the twenties no longer troubles us and the apologetic note is seldom heard: it is something to find Gustavus Myers writing *America Strikes Back!*⁵

It is perhaps suggestive that no books of what is commonly called "general history" were published during the past year; no larger histories inaugurated, no interpretations attempted. There may be some significance in the fact that our general histories are now being fed to us in the pap of picture-books. Here are, in any event, two books which illustrate—I do not say illuminate—American history: *The Story of America in Pictures*,⁶ edited by Alan Collins and with an introduction by Claude Bowers, and *The American Historical Scene*⁷ as depicted by Stanley Arthurs. The first of these has nothing to recommend it. The second is a collection of historical paintings by the distinguished illustrator, Stanley Arthurs. The paintings are in the Pyle tradition: they depict the more romantic aspects of earlier American experience, and display a fine sense for color and decoration. The texts which accompany the pictures are distinctly uneven in quality and in character: the volume is an item in American art rather than a contribution to American history.

Though we want any broad interpretations of our history we are fortunate in having two volumes of essays that reflect more limited phases of American development: Dixon Ryan Fox's *Ideas in Motion*⁸ and Carl Becker's *Everyman His Own Historian*.⁹ Dr. Fox, in four brief essays, touches on various problems in social and intellectual history. The ideas which Fox presents are not original; the value of the essays lies rather in the illustrative material and the editorial asides. Surely and gracefully Fox glides through the underbrush of social history, finding everywhere apt illustrations, illuminating anecdotes, appropriate quotations, building up his argument by suggestion and insinuation, never weighting it down with learning that is ostentatious, never pretentious or heavy but good-humored and urbane. The most interesting of the essays is probably that which proposes "A synthetic principle in American Social History." This essay seems to imply that complexity, diversification, and specialization are indices to civilization. It is an illuminating suggestion, but it may be remarked that simplicity in essentials is an equally valid index to civilization, that specialization leads to disintegration rather than to integration.

Professor Becker's volume embraces essays written over a period of a quarter-century and includes the essays on "Kansas," "The Spirit of '76," "Henry Adams," "Frederick Jackson Turner," and the presidential address which gives the title to the volume: characteristically he has omitted some of his best papers—the *Atlantic Monthly* essay on historical fact, for example, and the essay on "The Influence of Social Problems on the Study of History." The essays in this volume throw an oblique light—and that is Becker's favorite kind of light—on some episodes in American intellectual history. The frightening shift of emphasis, in the years prior to Lexington, from liberty to equality has never been better explained than in his interpretation of the Spirit of '76. A score of commentators have analyzed Frederick J. Turner, but the Turner who

⁵ New York: Ives Washburn, Inc.

⁷ Philadelphia: University of Pennsylvania Press.

⁸ New York: F. S. Crofts & Co.

⁹ Garden City: Doubleday, Doran & Co.

⁶ New York: D. Appleton-Century Co.

emerges from Becker's ingratiating and familiar essay is, we feel, the authentic one. A hundred critics have overwhelmed Henry Adams; but in Becker, Henry Adams has found a critic whose reflections are as tolerant, as reverent, and as ironic as were his own. Most interesting, perhaps, are the proof that Everyman is indeed his own historian and the Socratic dialogue on the Marxian philosophy of history which is addressed as persuasively to the Tugwell-Counts school of indoctrination as to the intransigent Marxist. All of these essays reveal those qualities which have given Becker his unique place among American historians of this generation: a concern with ideas, learning that is associated with tolerance and wisdom, a sense of humor and irony, urbanity, and a familiar and graceful style.

There is, of course, a very large and somewhat breathless literature which interprets the American past with a view to proving something about the present economic or political situation. Everyone, now, so we might suppose, is very busy thinking about very deep and fundamental things, about the kind of society that we have and the kind that we ought to have, and everyone is ready with analyses, predictions, and arguments. If the Supreme Court is in the headlines, lo, there are books on the Supreme Court; are tenant farmers on the warpath or laborers driven to violence, there are half a dozen volumes to explain the background of the whole thing. The present crisis is a happy hunting ground for journalists, and sometimes a good book is written. Herbert Agar's *Land of the Free*,¹⁰ for example, is thoughtful and intelligent; Lewis Corey's *Crisis of the Middle Class*¹¹ is informative and provocative; Jerome Davis' *Capitalism and Its Culture*¹² is learned and penetrating. But these volumes, though they cannot be neglected by the historian, belong properly in the province of other commentators.

III

Perhaps the most important contributions to colonial history have been a number of volumes of source material, all of them sponsored by some governmental agency or learned society. The third volume of the *Records of the Virginia Company*,¹³ edited by Susan Kingsbury, covers the period from 1619 to 1622 and sustains the interpretation of the failure and dissolution of that Company which W. F. Craven advanced in his *Dissolution of the Virginia Company*. Volume four of the *Documents Illustrative of the History of the Slave Trade to America*,¹⁴ edited by Elizabeth Donnan, brings to a close that great project. The present volume covers the slave trade in the Southern colonies, the spread of slavery in the tobacco and rice and indigo areas; it is particularly full for the history of slavery in South Carolina and contains a valuable collection of the correspondence of Henry Laurens. *The Select Cases of the Mayor's Court of New York City, 1674-1784*, edited by Richard B. Morris,¹⁵ is the second publication in the American Legal Records Series. It is primarily concerned with judicial procedure and doctrine rather than with history. *The Correspondence of Maria Van Rensselaer*, edited by A. J. F. Van Laer,¹⁶ describes the social life of a great patroon family during the years from 1669 to 1689. Isabel Calder's *Colonial Captivities, Marches and Journeys*¹⁷ is a collection of heretofore unpublished letters, diaries, and

¹⁰ Boston: Houghton Mifflin Co.

¹¹ New York: Covici-Friede, Inc.

¹² New York: Farrar & Rinehart.

¹³ Washington, D.C.: United States Government Printing Office.

¹⁴ Washington, D.C.: Carnegie Institution of Washington.

¹⁵ Washington, D.C.: American Historical Association.

¹⁶ Albany: University of the State of New York.

¹⁷ New York: Macmillan Co. Published for the National Society of Colonial Dames.

journals which illustrate the conflict between the French and the English in North America in the seventy-five years prior to the Revolution. The most important of these is probably the lengthy *Journal of a Captive, 1745-1748*. One of the most valuable publications of recent years is L. W. Labaree's two-volume edition of *Royal Instructions to British Colonial Governors, 1670-1776*,¹⁸ published under the auspices of the American Historical Association. "Within the 1,076 numbered articles, Labaree notes, "are collated the 20,000 to 25,000 articles comprising the entire collection of instructions general, trade, and additional, which were issued to the royal governors in America between 1670 and the Declaration of Independence. All Royal colonies in America during the period are included, from Quebec and Nova Scotia to Bermuda and Barbados." The topical arrangement, itself an immense labor, is remarkably convenient and workmanlike, and the collection should prove an invaluable aid to all students of American colonial history and of British imperial policy.

Two volumes deal in a stirring manner with the period of exploration. J. C. Beaglehole's *Exploration of the Pacific*¹⁹ covers the story from Magellan to Captain Cook: there are valuable chapters on Mendana, Quiros, Roggeveen, Tasman, Dampier, and the eighteenth-century circumnavigators from Byron to Bougainville. Written in a spirited style, its value enhanced by a dozen excellent maps, this volume is one of the best of the Pioneer Histories series. Philip A. Means, who has contributed so largely to our knowledge of Inca civilization has turned his attention to the glamorous story of *The Spanish Main: focus of envy, 1492-1700*.²⁰ Three volumes illuminate special phases of the Spanish colonization of North America. Alfred B. Thomas' *After Coronado*²¹ is a collection of documents on the exploration of the Spanish southwest, Rufus K. Wyllys' *Pioneer Padre*²² is a biography of Eusebio Francisco Kino whose valuable *Historical Memoir of Promeria Alta*²³ was edited, some years ago, by Herbert E. Bolton. In his monograph on *Spanish Missions of Georgia*²⁴ John Tate Lanning has shown how extensive was the Spanish penetration into Georgia prior to the coming of the English and how the Jesuits and Franciscans were the agents of that penetration.

The monographs on the history of the English colonies reveal an interest in the economic and social rather than in the political aspects of colonial history. Only one volume is concerned with political or administrative history: James J. Burns' *Colonial Agents of New England*.²⁵ Virginia Harrington's *New York Merchant on the Eve of the Revolution*²⁶ is a careful study of the problem which Schlesinger first broached in a more general fashion. Samuel McKee's *Labor in Colonial New York, 1664-1776*²⁷ is a pioneer work in a field too long neglected, and supplements to some extent the material presented by Miss Harrington. George Francis Dow's *Everyday Life in the Massachusetts Bay Colony*²⁸ is a learned and charming essay on the social history of the Puritan colony. Of prime importance not only for colonial history but for the history of American education and American thought is S. E. Morison's brilliant and scholarly *Founding of Harvard College*.²⁹ With the possible exception of church history, no phase of American history has suffered more egregiously from its advocates

¹⁸ Appleton-Century. Published for the American Historical Association.

¹⁹ Macmillan Co.

²⁰ Scribner's & Sons.

²¹ Norman: University of Oklahoma Press.

²² Dallas: Southwest Press.

²³ Berkeley: University of California Press.

²⁴ Chapel Hill: University of North Carolina Press.

²⁵ Washington, D.C.: Catholic University of America.

²⁶ Columbia University Press.

²⁷ Columbia University Press.

²⁸ Society for the Preservation of New England Antiquities.

²⁹ Cambridge: Harvard University Press.

than has educational history. Mr. Morison's substantial volume sheds light on the history of the medieval and the modern university, on the transit of civilization from the Old World to the New, and on the thinking and the social attitudes of early New England. It establishes a new standard for college histories and reveals the possibilities of that subject.

IV

The Revolutionary period continues to suffer from neglect; no work comparable in importance even with Allan French's *First Year of the American Revolution*³⁰ was published in the last year. In *Revolution and Freemasonry, 1680-1800*,³¹ Bernard Fay traces the rise of Freemasonry in France, England, and the American colonies and attempts to show the intimate connections between the revolution and freemasonry. The effort is not successful. The book is marred by gross misinterpretations of history and by a cavalier attitude toward facts, and the weakest chapters in the book are those dealing with the American Revolution. More valuable is the material contained in several excellent biographies of the leading figures of the Revolutionary era. Of these Frank Monaghan's *John Jay*³² is probably the most important. It interprets this "Defender of Liberty against Kings & Peoples" in a sympathetic and understanding manner. The career of John Jay, as well as that of any other American of his time, illuminates that problem which Carl Becker so well presented in the "Spirit of '76," and Monaghan's analysis of Jay goes far to explain how it was that conservative aristocrats found themselves hopelessly entangled in a radical revolutionary movement. There are valuable chapters on the writing of the Constitution of New York State, on American diplomatic relations with Spain and on the negotiation of the Peace of Paris. Burton J. Hendrick's *The Lees of Virginia*³³ covers the entire history of that great family from the first Richard Lee to Robert E. Lee. Wisely, Hendrick has not attempted to interpret in any elaborate fashion the greatest of the Lees, but has emphasized rather the Lees of the Colonial and the Revolutionary era: William, Francis Lightfoot, Richard Henry, Arthur, Charles, and Henry. Perhaps the most interesting chapters in the book are those dealing with the Lee-Adams Junto and with the militia diplomacy of the Revolution. The volume is eminently successful in interpreting and explaining the contributions of this extraordinary family to American history, and it carries lightly its real learning.

It would be difficult to find in the annals of the eighteenth century a more fantastic figure than that of Benjamin Thompson, the New Hampshire farmer who abandoned the American cause to become first a Colonel in the British army and then an adviser to the Bavarian government and who, in the latter capacity, furnished perhaps the most striking example of enlightened despotism in eighteenth-century Europe. John A. Thompson's biography of this *Count Rumford of Massachusetts*³⁴ scarcely does justice to its subject, but it does serve to call attention to one of the most interesting men of his generation. Louis Gottschalk's *LaFayette Comes to America*³⁵ is an admirable essay on the character of the young LaFayette and the factors which impelled him to throw his fortune with the American cause.

Every year has to have its Washington biography: Michael de la Bedoyere's *George Washington*³⁶ is better than most of the interpretations that have recently appeared.

³⁰ Houghton Mifflin Co.

³¹ Indianapolis: Bobbs-Merrill Co.

³² Farrar & Rinehart.

³³ Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott Co.

³⁴ Boston: Little, Brown & Co.

³⁵ Little, Brown & Co.

³⁶ University of Chicago Press.

It is based entirely on secondary material and it adds nothing to our knowledge of Washington, but it is shrewd, sensible, and interesting. A far more important piece of work is the definitive edition of and history of *Washington's Farewell Address*,³⁷ edited by the erudite Victor H. Paltsits. Here is the historical setting of the Address, the problem of authorship, the text itself, restored and explained.

Two monographs on the Revolutionary period merit attention. Jennings B. Sanders' *Evolution of the Executive Departments of the Continental Congress, 1774-1789*³⁸ is useful but uninspired. Samuel Flagg Bemis' *Diplomacy of the American Revolution*³⁹ rests on an impressive basis of published and unpublished source material: it is thorough, learned, and lucid, but distressingly condensed and somewhat unbalanced in treatment. Mr. Bemis gives more attention to the Spanish diplomatic story than is customary and there are several chapters on the League of Armed Neutrality and the diplomatic relations of the United States with the Dutch. Personalities do not figure largely in this account and the style lacks distinction.

V

The Middle Period of American History has been illuminated by biography rather than by monograph. Yet if the quality of historical material is disappointingly meagre, the quality is exceptionally high. Charles M. Wiltse's *Jeffersonian Tradition in American History*⁴⁰ is the most satisfactory appraisal of Jefferson's thought, and the most sympathetic analysis of the Jeffersonian tradition, in our literature. It covers, adequately, the entire ground of Jefferson's thinking and the influence of that thought upon American political and social theory. William S. Jenkins' *Pro-Slavery Thought in the Old South*⁴¹ is the most thorough examination into the origins and the character of the pro-slavery argument that has yet appeared. It traces the argument back to the colonial period, notes its development from apology to glorification, and analyzes its character in relation to ethnology and economy, government and morals; the exhaustive bibliography is particularly valuable.

It is almost thirty years now since Frederick Jackson Turner published his history of the decade 1819-1829, *The Rise of the New West*.⁴² Shortly, a volume covering the two following decades was promised, and that work was almost completed at the time of Turner's death. Under the skillful editorial supervision of Avery Craven the manuscript was whipped into shape and published as *The United States, 1830-1840: the Nation and its Sections*.⁴³ The emphasis, as the title indicates, is upon sectionalism⁴⁴ and the first half of the book is given over to a painstaking and marvellously condensed description of the sections which made up the United States of this period: New England, the Middle Atlantic, the South Atlantic, the South Central, the North Central States, Texas, and the Far West. The second half of the book is devoted to analyses of the Jackson, Van Buren, Tyler, and Polk administrations with emphasis always upon the sectional character of the politics of the time. The book reveals those qualities which distinguished Turner's scholarship: a reliance upon source material, massive accumulation of data, lucidity of organization, and a reluctance to force inferences or draw conclusions from available material. The book is not so much a narrative history as an encyclopaedia of social and economic information.

³⁷ New York Public Library.

³⁸ University of North Carolina Press.

³⁹ Appleton-Century. Published for the American Historical Association.

⁴⁰ University of North Carolina Press.

⁴¹ University of North Carolina Press.

⁴² The American Nation Series. New York: Harper & Bros.

⁴³ New York: Henry Holt & Co.

⁴⁴ See Turner's *Significance of Sections in American History*. Henry Holt & Co.

Two monographs present, exhaustively, special phases of the economic history of this period. Richard G. Wood's *History of Lumbering in Maine, 1820-1861*⁴⁵ is not only a history of the most important of Maine industries, but a study in the pattern of frontier life; there are useful chapters on the public land policy of Maine, on speculation, on the more spectacular aspects of lumbering—the drive, and the boom on labor and the lumber industry and on the emigration of Maine lumbermen. Reginald C. McGrane's *Foreign Bondholders and American State Debts*⁴⁶ gives a definite account of a chapter in our financial history which has recently come to assume some importance: the suspensions and repudiation of debts by American states during the era of canal building and during Reconstruction. While McGrane is inclined to affix blame for the financial difficulties in which the defaulting States found themselves as much on the creditors as on the debtors, he quotes with apparent approval the proposal by William H. Taft that the whole question of these State debts be submitted to international arbitration and that the Federal government assume responsibility for the adjudication of the question.

One collection of source material is invaluable for a study of this period: *The Letters of Theodore Dwight Weld, Angelina Grimké Weld and Sarah Grimké*,⁴⁷ edited by Gilbert H. Barnes and Dwight Dumond. In his *Anti-Slavery Impulse*,⁴⁸ published some three years ago, Barnes advanced the theory that the anti-slavery movement had its origins in the religious revivals of the early thirties and that Theodore Weld rather than Garrison was the central figure in that movement. The explanation of the failure of historians to give credit to Weld, Barnes found in the deliberate desire of Weld for obscurity and in the partisanship of New England historians. The fortunate discovery of a trunk full of Weld letters now affords an opportunity for Barnes to substantiate the theory of Weld's predominant rôle in the whole movement.

The biographical approach to this period has proved more popular though not necessarily a more rewarding one than the historical. The novelist Thomas Boyd has told, with great literary skill, the tragic story of *Poor John Fitch*,⁴⁹ surveyor, soldier, and inventor of the steamboat. In *Spangled Banner: the Story of Francis Scott Key*,⁵⁰ Victor Weybright has recalled from obscurity another figure memorable only for a single episode in history. J. Fred Rippy's biography of *Joel R. Poinsett*⁵¹ rescues from undeserved oblivion one of the most attractive and versatile of the leaders of the Old South. A man of broad culture, a skillful if overly enthusiastic diplomat, an ardent Unionist, Poinsett is perhaps best remembered for the flower which he introduced into the United States: Rippy's admirable book provides a more substantial basis for his fame. Arthur Styron's *The Cast Iron Man: Calhoun and American Democracy*,⁵² is a passionate attempt to explain and justify not only the political but the social philosophy which Calhoun so ably defended: the book is marred not only by prejudice but by unpardonable errors of fact. Wendell H. Stephenson's *Alexander Porter*⁵³ is an unpretentious account of the services of a distinguished jurist, politician, and planter of Louisiana whose chief claim to fame is possibly the fact that he earned from the ungenerous J. Q. Adams a tribute to his "fine talents, amiable disposition, pleasant temper, benevolent heart and elegant tastes." Holmes Alexander's biography of Martin

⁴⁵ Orono: University of Maine Press.

⁴⁶ Macmillan & Co.

⁴⁷ Appleton-Century. Published for the American Historical Association.

⁴⁸ Appleton-Century. Published for the American Historical Association.

⁴⁹ New York: G. P. Putnam's Sons.

⁵⁰ Farrar & Rinehart.

⁵¹ Durham: Duke University Press.

⁵² New York: Longmans, Green & Co.

⁵³ Baton Rouge: Louisiana State University Press.

Van Buren, *The American Tallyrand*,⁵⁴ shows evidences of considerable industry and a good deal of enthusiasm but it is an unbalanced and rather foggy affair and does not add anything to our understanding of either Van Buren or the politics of that generation. Some twenty-five years ago Laura E. Richards edited the *Letters and Journals* of her father, Samuel Gridley Howe. Now she has written a biography⁵⁵ of the great abolitionist and reformer; the book is a warm, personal appreciation, valuable for its recreation of one of the most gallant figures of the last century, but uncritical and disappointingly brief.

Three biographies emphasize the rising interest in America's maritime history: Charles J. Dutton's *Oliver Hazard Perry*⁵⁶ is careful and accurate but uninspired; Edward M. Barrows' *The Great Commodore: the Exploits of Matthew Calbraith Perry*,⁵⁷ is thorough, scholarly, and spirited; Arthur Winslow's *Francis Winslow, His Forebears and Life*⁵⁸ is more interesting, perhaps, to genealogists than to historians. Of more importance for the study of our maritime history is Henry I. Chapelle's *History of American Sailing Ships*,⁵⁹ the most exhaustive and learned treatise on the subject in our literature, a volume fascinating alike to the layman and the specialist. Wesley G. Pierce's *Goin' Fishin'. The Story of the Deep-Sea Fishermen of New England*⁶⁰ is an intimate and sympathetic narrative of the off-shore fishermen of New England and especially of Gloucester. Henry C. Kittredge's *Shipmasters of Cape Cod*⁶¹ is based on ship's logs and shipmasters' letters and traces the glamorous maritime history of Cape Cod from the colonial period to the decline of the prosaic post-Civil War years. Of great interest to the student of American naval history is the inauguration of the *Naval Records Series*. The first volume of this series is a compilation of *Naval Documents related to the Quasi-War between the United States and France: Naval Operations, Feb. 1797 to Oct. 1798*,⁶² edited by Captain Dudley Knox.

VI

Despite the emphasis upon social and economic history, despite the opportunity which the Civil War offers for a more sharply focused examination of institutions, it is still the military history of that war which commands the attention of historians. Fletcher Pratt's *Ordeal by Fire: the Iron Age of the Republic*,⁶³ is a highly seasoned and dramatic popular account of the War. John A. Cutchin's *A Famous Command*⁶⁴ is the story of the Richmond Light Infantry Blue. Perry G. Hamlin's edition of the *Letters of General R. S. Ewell*⁶⁵ adds nothing of importance to our knowledge of the war on the eastern front and little on the character of "the little woodpecker, bald, and quaint of speech." Of real value is the new edition of the famous *Rebel War Clerk's Diary*,⁶⁶ edited in two handsome volumes by Howard Swiggett. There is no more illuminating source for the social history of the Confederate capital than this Diary of the faithful John Beauchamp Jones who never let a day pass without an entry. "A dry, anti-social rather crabbed virtuous little man," Swiggett calls Jones, but these very characteristics give to his Diary a value that might have been qualified by a more flamboyant or a more philosophical style. In *Sea Dogs of the Sixties*,⁶⁷ Jim Dan Hill

⁵⁴ Harper Bros.

⁵⁵ Longmans, Green & Co.

⁵⁶ Privately printed, Norwood, Massachusetts.

⁵⁷ Salem: Marine Research Society.

⁵⁸ United States Government Printing Office.

⁵⁹ Richmond: Garrett & Massie.

⁶⁰ New York: Old Hickory Bookshop.

⁶¹ Minneapolis: University of Minnesota Press.

⁶² Appleton-Century.

⁶³ Bobbs-Merrill.

⁶⁴ New York: W. W. Norton & Co.

⁶⁵ Houghton Mifflin Co.

⁶⁶ New York: Smith & Haas, Inc.

⁶⁷ Richmond: Whittet & Shepperson.

tells the romantic story of four northern and four southern naval captains of the Civil War: Farragut, Wilkes, Rodgers, and Winslow, Wilkinson, Bulloch, Read, and Wad-dell.

It would seem difficult to say anything new about Lincoln, but Roy Basler's *The Lincoln Legend*,⁶⁸ an interesting analysis of the legendary and mythological elements in Lincoln's fame, does strike a fresh note. The point of departure for the inquiry is that best stated by Emerson: "Time dissipates to shining ether the solid angularity of facts. Who cares what the fact was, when we have made a constellation of it to hang in heaven an immortal sign." The author analyzes the Lincoln legend in folklore and fiction, in poetry and drama, in history and biography, in sculpture and painting, and concludes that men have found in Lincoln whatever they looked for and have read into him whatever significance they desired. This conclusion is supported, in a curious fashion by R. R. Wilson's *Lincoln in Portraiture*⁶⁹—a collection of some fifty portraits of Lincoln from youth to death; perhaps the most impressive thing about the collection is precisely the fact that painters found in Lincoln what they were seeking and presented him in so many and sharply different versions. Paul M. Angle's *Here I Have Lived*⁷⁰ is a history of Springfield, Illinois, from its first settlement in 1821 to 1865, with special emphasis on the influence which the society of this frontier capital had on the development of its greatest citizen.

The literature of Reconstruction is immense, but that there is room for a fresh interpretation is abundantly proved by W. E. B. DuBois' *Black Reconstruction*,⁷¹ one of the most important and most original publications of the year. Dr. DuBois has long insisted that the conventional history of Reconstruction did gross injustice to the Negro. He has here attempted to redress that injustice, and the most valuable part of the volume is the carefully documented analysis of the legislative history of the southern states during reconstruction. The author emphasizes the constructive social and political legislation of the black and tan legislatures and advances evidence to indicate that the extent of graft and corruption has been enormously exaggerated. The re-interpretation of the period is somewhat confused by Du Bois' insistence upon interjecting into the story the class-struggle theory of history. The book is marred by a tone polemic and at times passionate, but it is altogether the most important contribution to our understanding of Reconstruction since Beale's *Critical Year*.

In sharp contrast to the views presented in Du Bois' volume are those which emerge from A. B. Williams' history of *Hampton and His Red Shirts*,⁷² a journalistic account of the redemption of the Palmetto State from negro rule. The tone of the book is thoroughly conventional and prejudiced: of the riot at Cainhoy, for example, Williams remarks, "The conduct at Brick Church should be considered as illustrating how fast the colored population, so faithful and friendly during the Civil War, was relapsing into barbarism and savagery after nine years of guidance by a combination of reckless thieves and fanatical idealists." Even James Pike was a little fairer than this, and the new edition of *The Prostrate State*,⁷³ edited with an introduction by Henry Steele Commager, makes available again perhaps the most colorful contemporary account of the working of Reconstruction in a Southern State.

Four biographies light up various phases of the political history of the Reconstruc-

⁶⁸ Houghton Mifflin Co.

⁷⁰ Springfield, Illinois: Lincoln Memorial Association.

⁷¹ New York: Harcourt, Brace & Co.

⁷² New York: Loring & Mussey.

⁶⁹ New York: Press of the Pioneers.

⁷³ Columbia: Walker, Evans & Cogswell.

tion period. Mary M. Phelps' *Kate Chase, Dominant Daughter*⁷⁴ is interesting chiefly for its description of the social life of the Lincoln and Johnson administrations and for its revelation of the influence which Kate exerted on the political ambitions of her father, the distinguished Chief Justice. Donald B. Chidsey's *The Gentleman from New York*⁷⁵ is a biography of the Byronic Roscoe Conkling, whose name was too closely associated with that of Kate Chase for his comfort or her good, and whose reputation remains, despite the material in this biography, one of the mysteries of American politics.

William B. Hesseltine's *U. S. Grant*⁷⁶ is one of the volumes of the *American Political Leaders* series, edited by Allan Nevins. It is not a full-length biography but a history of Grant's political career. Though somewhat marred by a tendency to disparage the motives and sincerity of Grant's critics, the book is the most thorough, most accurate, and perhaps the most dispassionate history of the Grant administration that we have. Equally valuable for an understanding of this period is Wirt Armistead Cate's biography of the ablest of Southern post-war leaders, *Lucius Q. C. Lamar*.⁷⁷ A representative of all that was best in the political and cultural life of the Old South, Lamar was one of the few ante-bellum leaders who was able to adjust himself to the changes precipitated by Appomattox. He spoke eloquently for sectional reconciliation, justifying provincialism to the North and nationalism to the South. Long senator from Mississippi he went from that position into Cleveland's Cabinet and eventually to the Supreme Court, and he filled every position with ability. Cate's biography is wholly admirable, and it is easy to excuse the special pleading which crops out in some of the chapters.

VII

Whether because it is too complex or merely too dull, whether because it is too near for detachment or too distant for profitable exploitation, the years between Reconstruction and the turn of the century continue to suffer from neglect. A few monographs touch on special phases of politics; a few biographies recreate titans of industry or social reformers, but the literature on this period is disappointingly meagre. For yesterday, however, or the day before yesterday, there is a different story to tell, and it is being told with breath-taking haste. By common consent, it would seem, the political history of the last few decades is relegated to a position distinctly subordinate to that which is accorded social and economic history. Instead of histories of parties we have histories of corporations; instead of biographies of Presidents we have biographies of industrialists or financiers. Perhaps this is as it should be.

In *Boss Rule*⁷⁸ J. T. Slater has given us a series of case studies in the institution of the political boss: the material for the book is taken entirely from Philadelphia and the conclusions are neither original nor penetrating. Carter Harrison's *Stormy Years*⁷⁹ is the autobiography of the man who was five times mayor of Chicago and who was not without influence in Democratic national politics. Of current interest is the careful study of *The 1932 Campaign*⁸⁰ by Roy Peel and Thomas Donnelly. In general arrangement this analysis follows the plan of the earlier volume on the 1928 Campaign; these handbooks are so useful that we may hope for the continuation of the series.

⁷⁴ New York: Thomas Y. Crowell Co.

⁷⁵ New York: Dodd, Mead & Co.

⁷⁶ New York: Whittlesey House, McGraw-Hill

⁷⁷ Bobbs-Merrill.

⁷⁸ New Haven: Yale University Press.

⁷⁹ University of North Carolina Press.

Book Co.

⁸⁰ Farrar & Rinehart.

The literature which seeks to explain the kaleidoscopic view of the twenties is more extensive and more substantial. With *The Twenties*⁸¹ Mark Sullivan brings to a close his six-volume history of *Our Times*. *The Twenties* is in some respects the least satisfactory volume of the series; it lacks perspective and organization and presents a sorry apology for some of the misdeeds of the Harding and Coolidge administrations. Sullivan has included in this volume those recollections of literature, the stage, popular songs, and motion pictures which gave to the earlier volumes such interest and vivacity. Frederick Lewis Allen's *Lords of Creation*⁸² is concerned with the financial and industrial leaders of the period since 1900 with special attention to the piping years of the twenties and the great depression; it is in part criticism, in part apology, but it is everywhere shrewd and provocative. Morris Werner's *Privileged Characters*⁸³ is in some respects the most substantial thing of its kind in our literature. Based largely on material taken from Congressional investigations, it recounts with great detail some of the more malodorous episodes of the Harding, Coolidge, and Hoover administrations. It contains exhaustive analyses of Teapot Dome, of the Veterans Bureau, the Air Mail, and the Department of Justice scandals, but its tone is dispassionate and reserved and it is not to be dismissed as a piece of muckraking. Equally depressing, equally convincing, is Harvey O'Connor's *Steel Dictator*,⁸⁴ a study of the steel mills and mines, of financial jugglings and economic warfare. A book of the same character but with a new turn to it, is Gustavus Myers' *America Strikes Back*.⁸⁵ For many years Myers devoted himself to uncovering the pretences and shams of American politics and business, and his influence has been enormous. It is somewhat startling, now, to find him in the rôle of the apologist which the *et tu quoque* advocate must inevitably assume. The book is an effort to show that scandals in business and politics, selfishness and greed and dishonesty, are no monopoly of America but are common to modern business civilization, and it describes in some detail the more noisome episodes in the political and business history of England and Continental Europe. The book contains a valuable survey of European criticism of the United States.

If our history is to be told in terms of economics it is important that we have biographies of business men as well as of statesmen. Time was when biographies of industrialists and financiers were almost as uncritical and vapid as biographies of clergymen; fortunately the last decade has seen a notable advance in this field of biography. It would be difficult to find a more thoroughly competent and admirable piece of work than Allan Nevins' *Abram S. Hewitt with some Account of Peter Cooper*. Together⁸⁶—and they were inextricably linked—the careers of Cooper and Hewitt spanned almost a hundred years of New York life, and the influence of these two men in politics and business was nation-wide. Peter Cooper is best remembered for his philanthropies; Nevins has emphasized equally his contributions to the iron and steel industry in America and his political activities. In business Hewitt followed in the footsteps of his famous father-in-law; in politics he took a more conservative road. The larger part of this volume is devoted to a history of Hewitt's connection with the steel industry, and his work as chairman of the Democratic national committee in 1876, leader of the Democrats in the House, and mayor of New York City. Particularly important are the chapters dealing with the effort of the Cooper-Hewitt iron works to coöperate with the Federal government during the Civil War and the masterly

⁸¹ Scribner's & Sons.

⁸² New York: R. M. McBride & Co.

⁸³ Washburn.

⁸⁴ Harper Bros.

⁸⁵ New York: Reynal & Hitchcock.

⁸⁶ Harper Bros.

analysis of the disputed election of 1876; an analysis which proves beyond dispute the partisanship of the Electoral Commission.

Some five years ago, W. T. Hutchinson gave us the first volume of his monumental biography of Cyrus McCormick. He has now brought that work to completion with the volume *Cyrus Hall McCormick, Harvest, 1856-1884*.⁸⁷ The volume covers McCormick's efforts to stave off the Civil War, the response of the McCormick factory to the demands of Civil War agriculture, and the development of domestic and foreign markets on a large scale in the post-war years. It analyzes McCormick's participation in the affairs of the Presbyterian Church and the Democratic party and his forays into philanthropy. This biography takes its place alongside such works as Porter's *Astor* and Hendrick's *Carnegie* as one of the really notable contributions to the history of American business.

Written to a different scale and emphasizing the good qualities of business men whose activities have recently been scrutinized rather critically are E. Francis Brown's *Edmund Niles Huyck*,⁸⁸ William Inglis' *George F. Johnson and his Industrial Empire*,⁸⁹ and Herman Hagedorn's *The Magnate: William Boyd Thompson and his Times*.⁹⁰ A somewhat more critical note is sounded in John K. Winkler's history of the *Du Pont Dynasty*⁹¹ and in George Britt's biography of Frank A. Munsey, *Forty Years, Forty Millions*.⁹² The career of a much abler newspaperman, the editor of the old *Chicago Daily News*, is set forth in Charles Dennis' sympathetic account of *Victor Lawson, His Time and Work*.⁹³ The *Autobiography of John Hays Hammond*⁹⁴ tells, in exciting detail, and with unqualified appreciation, the career of the great engineer who played an active rôle in the politics of half a dozen nations and was the trusted adviser to Presidents.

VIII

Constitutional history has suffered, it would appear, a temporary eclipse, though we may presume that the current interest in the problems of constitutional reform and the power of the Courts will inspire a revival of interest. However that may be, it seems that the study of constitutional history imposes upon the student a mental discipline, a precision of phrasing, a consistency of thinking, an accuracy of fact, that results in books that possess these qualities more largely than does the average historical or biographical study. It is perhaps no great exaggeration to suggest that A. C. McLaughlin's *Constitutional History of the United States*⁹⁵ is the most substantial historical work to appear during the past year and that Carl Swisher's biography of Chief Justice Taney is the most perspicacious biography of the year. Professor McLaughlin's contributions to the interpretation of American history need no recapitulation here. That substantial volume presents anew those interpretations, and reveals again those qualities of mind and of style that we have long associated with McLaughlin: great learning, a sense for the significant as distinguished from the antiquarian, thoughtfulness, tolerance, understanding, gracefulness of style and of manner. The book is particularly full for the Revolution and the Civil War periods of American history; the treatment of the years since 1876 is disappointingly brief.

Mr. Swisher's *Robert B. Taney*⁹⁶ resurrects and rehabilitates one of the ablest jur-

⁸⁷ Appleton-Century.

⁸⁸ New York: Huntington Press.

⁸⁹ Reynal & Hitchcock.

⁹⁰ University of Chicago Press.

⁹¹ Appleton-Century Co.

⁹² Dodd, Mead.

⁹³ Reynal & Hitchcock.

⁹⁴ Farrar & Rinehart.

⁹⁵ Farrar & Rinehart.

⁹⁶ Macmillan Co.

ists who ever sat upon the Supreme Court bench. It throws new light on the politics of the Jacksonian era, and the struggle over the charter of the Second Bank; it presents, intelligently and sympathetically, the effort which Taney made to reverse the nationalistic and capitalistic rulings of his great predecessor in favor of a more democratic interpretation of the law. It is scholarly and thoughtful, not as well written as Beveridge's *Marshall* nor as elaborate, but a better and more honest piece of work.

Two studies analyze the careers and achievements of one of the most recent acquisitions to the Supreme Court: Joseph P. Pollard's *Mr. Justice Cardozo*⁹⁷ and Oscar S. Cox's *The Philosophy of Mr. Justice Cardozo*.⁹⁸ These monographs, together with the recent studies of Brandeis, Holmes, Harlan, Field, and Taft, are heartening indications that there is a growing realization of the importance of the biographical approach to the understanding of our judicial and constitutional history. It is time that students directed their attention to some of the earlier justices whose careers have too long been overshadowed by Marshall and Taney.

IX

The prolonged crisis in international affairs and the anxious discussions of neutrality legislation, of sanctions, and of the causes of war, has not unnaturally been reflected in the literature of diplomatic history. Particularly important are the analyses of the inner diplomacy of the Wilson administration and the reconsideration of the whole problem of American neutrality.

Albert K. Weinberg's *Manifest Destiny, A Study of National Expansion in American History*⁹⁹ is the first thorough and scholarly analysis of the ideology of American expansion. There are chapters on Natural Right, Geographical Predestination, the Idea of Freedom, Inevitable Destiny, The White Man's Burden, Paramount Interest, Self-Defense, and World Leadership, and the concern is always with the ideas or rationalizations, rather than with historical events. The book lacks any serious treatment of anti-imperialism and is for the most part descriptive rather than interpretative. Four monographs recount special phases of American foreign policy: Charles S. Hyneman's *First American Neutrality, 1792-1815*,¹⁰⁰ Harris Booras' study of the *American Contribution to Hellenic Independence*,¹⁰¹ John Rydjord's *Foreign Interest in the Independence of New Spain*,¹⁰² and Sylvia Masterman's *Origins of International Rivalry in Samoa, 1845-1884*.¹⁰³ Some light is thrown upon German-American rivalries in Samoa, as well as upon other aspects of German-American relations in Otto Graf zu Stolberg-Wernigerode's *Deutschland und die Vereinigten Staaten von Amerika im Zeitalter Bismarcks*.¹⁰⁴ More exhaustive in nature, and dealing with diplomatic issues of a far graver character, is Alfred Vagts, *Deutschland und die Vereinigten Staaten in der Weltpolitik, 1890-1905*,¹⁰⁵ two volumes.

No current political controversy has inspired a more impressive body of historical literature than has the debate over neutrality legislation. Four volumes consider the problem of American neutrality during the World War and the abandonment of neutrality by the Wilson administration. First in importance is Walter Millis' *Road to War*,¹⁰⁶ a brilliant and substantial interpretation of the forces which carried the United States into the World War. Mr. Millis emphasizes the psychological rather

⁹⁷ New York: Yorktown Press.

⁹⁹ Johns Hopkins University Press.

¹⁰¹ Rutland: Tuttle Co.

¹⁰³ Stanford University Press.

¹⁰⁵ Macmillan Co.

⁹⁸ Macmillan Co.

¹⁰⁰ Urbana: University of Illinois Press.

¹⁰² Duke University Press.

¹⁰⁴ Berlin: Walter de Gruyter & Co.

¹⁰⁶ Houghton Mifflin Co.

than the economic or diplomatic forces. From his pages there emerges the conviction that the American entry into the war was avoidable, that the Bryan program of neutrality might have been successful, that the influence of Colonel House on the diplomacy of neutrality was unfortunate, and that Wilson himself, in the last analysis, was a victim of those forces of partisanship and passion against which he had warned his countrymen. The book is free from the flippant note which was sounded in Millis' earlier *Martial Spirit*.

Support is given to some of Millis' conclusions by the fifth volume of Ray S. Baker's *Life of Woodrow Wilson*.¹⁰⁷ This volume, by far the most important thus far to appear, deals with the years 1914 and 1915. Our ultimate entry into the War, asserts Baker, was determined by Wilson's "decisions during the period of neutrality in 1914 and 1915" and of those decisions he counts as most fateful the repudiation of Bryan. Mr. Baker shows how it happened that the pro-Ally policy of Lansing triumphed over the far-sighted policy of Bryan, and in this narrative it is Bryan who looms up as the really significant figure in the Wilson administration and Bryan's philosophy, once so abused, which turns out to be the practical and intelligent. As for Wilson, in the words of Millis, "the general impression is of a man imperfectly informed at many points, inexpert in the technique of diplomacy and with his own fundamental objectives not fully reasoned out in all their implications, struggling in a series of day to day expedients simply to meet situations as they arose."

Mr. Millis' animadversions on Lansing, and the implications of the Baker volume, find a good deal of support in Lansing's own *War Memoirs*.¹⁰⁸ These reveal the former Secretary of State as thoroughly and passionately pro-Ally and determined, from the first, that the Central Powers must be defeated. The *Memoirs* are valuable, too, for the presentation of new material on other phases of American foreign policy—the question of loans to belligerents of trade in munitions, German propaganda, the *Sussex*, the *Lusitania*, and the *Arabic* affairs, the Lansing-Ishii Agreement, and relations with Russia.

Two years ago Charles Seymour published what is still the best analysis of *American Diplomacy during the World War*.¹⁰⁹ Now, aroused by some of the loose charges to the effect that tenderness for the interests of international bankers or of munition manufacturers carried the United States into the War, he has written a series of essays on *American Neutrality, 1914-1917*.¹¹⁰ The argument of this book is that the German submarine policy was alone responsible for America's declaration of war. It is well to be reminded again of this fact, so frequently and conveniently forgotten; yet it is pertinent to inquire how it happened that Germany was persuaded of the wisdom of that policy, or was forced to adopt that policy, and how it happened that the Wilson administration made this policy a cause for war while it acquiesced in the violation of international law and of neutrality by the Allies; it is well to inquire, too, how it came about that public opinion was willing to support drastic action against Germany while it reprobated drastic action against the Allied Powers. The conclusion of Seymour's volume is arresting: the United States, he says, cannot possibly stay out of any major European conflict; it is necessary therefore that this country coöperate energetically with every effort to stamp out the causes of war.

Particularly valuable for the light that it throws on Wilson's Mexican policy is George Stephenson's biography of *John Lind of Minnesota*.¹¹¹ When Wilson as-

¹⁰⁷ Doubleday, Doran & Co.

¹⁰⁹ Baltimore: Johns Hopkins University Press.

¹¹¹ University of Minnesota Press.

¹⁰⁸ Bobbs-Merrill.

¹¹⁰ Yale University Press.

sumed office he found awaiting him a first-class crisis on Mexican affairs, and he soon discovered that the American diplomatic corps in Mexico was implacably hostile to hispanic-Huerta policy. It was as difficult to discover the truth about Mexico as it has since been to discover the truth about Russia, and that he might have a reliable and sympathetic source of information Wilson turned to one of Bryan's friends, Lind of Minnesota. Lind was sympathetic enough, but not exactly reliable: his sympathies were more notable than his discretion and he caused Wilson almost as much embarrassment as had Ambassador Wilson or charge d'affaires O'Shaughnessy. The chief value of the book is in its extensive quotations from Lind-Bryan correspondence, but it is interesting, too, for its portrait of one of the most attractive independents in recent American politics. Harold Nicholson's biography of *Dwight Morrow*¹¹² furnishes additional material on the relations of the United States and Mexico, and is important for its revelations of the activities of international bankers in the rehabilitation of post-war Europe. Important for the interpretation of the whole of recent American diplomacy is Frank Simonds' *American Foreign Policy in the Post-War Years*.¹¹³ The last book to come from the pen of Simonds, this book serves to remind us how great a loss to scholarship was the death of this shrewd, versatile, and learned commentator on American and world politics.

X

No branch of historical literature is more miscellaneous than that which is called "social"; none has less satisfactory or recognizable boundaries. That there is a history of society distinct from the history of politics or of diplomacy or of war cannot be maintained. Yet for purposes of convenience it is not improper to distinguish these branches of historical literature, only it is important to keep in mind that they are, after all, branches of the same tree. Certainly the emphasis upon the history of the common people and common things has resulted in a correction of that historical astigmatism which afflicted not a few students of politics. But of all forms of history, "social" is the least susceptible to synthesis, to interpretation.

The miscellaneous character of contributions to social history of the past year illustrates these generalizations. Mary Sumner Benson's *Women in Eighteenth Century America*¹¹⁴ is rather an index of literary opinion about the position of woman than an analysis of her actual position or her contributions. O. W. Reigel's *Crown of Glory*¹¹⁵ tells, pleasantly enough, the fantastic story of James J. Strang, Moses of the Mormons, founder of the Kingdom of St. James, but it does not seek to explain him or his devoted following or to interpret him as a product of the frontier psychology of the early nineteenth century. Robert A. Parker's *A Yankee Saint, John Humphrey Noyes and the Oneida Community*¹¹⁶ is a more substantial piece of work, scholarly, thoughtful, and sympathetic.

As a social institution the agricultural fair has played a significant rôle in our history. Wayne C. Neely's study of *The Agricultural Fair*,¹¹⁷ the second volume of the Columbia Studies in the History of American Agriculture, is both an historical and a sociological treatise. There are chapters on the agricultural fair in the Old World, the evolution of the fair in America, the golden age of the fair, the readjustment of the fair to twentieth-century needs, the educational, recreational, and social aspects

¹¹² Harcourt, Brace & Co.

¹¹⁴ Columbia University Press.

¹¹⁶ Putnam.

¹¹³ Johns Hopkins University Press.

¹¹⁵ Yale University Press.

¹¹⁷ Columbia University Press.

of the fair. Interesting is Neely's conclusion that the agricultural fair is still a vital influence in American rural life. A social and recreational institution of a very different character is described, lightly and gracefully, in Henry Collis Brown's *Brownstone Fronts and Saratoga Trunks*¹¹⁸—a picture of social life of New York's upper class in the "Brown decades." A document in the history of the "Passing of the Idle Rich" is E. D. Lehr's *King Lehr and the Golden Age*.¹¹⁹ Much more serious in character is Caroline Ware's *Greenwich Village, 1920-1930*,¹²⁰ a sociological analysis of population, interests, morals, religion, social activities of the Village. Greenwich Village is, of course, a state of mind rather than a locality, but Miss Ware has treated it as the Lynds treated Middletown.

Of recent contributions to the history of American education none is more important than Merle Curti's *Social Ideas of American Educators*,¹²¹ one of the volumes of the Report of the Commission on the Social Studies. Professor Curti is interested not only in the formal philosophy of such educators as Mann, Barnard, Harris, and Dewey, but in the social milieu out of which they came and to which they reacted; his investigations are more extensive in scope than is indicated even by the title, and his conclusions are pertinent to the problem of the social orientation of education today. The volume constitutes a chapter in the history of the American mind as well as in the history of American education. Half a dozen volumes present, not too critically, the biographies of American colleges, and touch, rather lightly, on the relation of higher education to society. The fourth volume of Wilbur Siebert's *History of Ohio State University*¹²² covers the period of the World War. The effect of environment on higher education may be illuminated by a comparison of the histories of two colleges whose origins were not dissimilar: Claude Fuess' *Amherst: the story of a New England College*,¹²³ and Arthur Beach's *A Pioneer College: the story of Marietta*.¹²⁴ The beginnings of higher education in the south can be read in Howard E. Carr's *Washington College*¹²⁵ and W. P. Bone's *A History of Cumberland University*.¹²⁶

The literature of the liberal reform movements of the nineties and the early years of the present century is so extensive, so interesting, and so perspicacious as to raise the question why we do not have any general history of those movements. One type of approach was suggested by John Chamberlain's *Farewell to Reform*,¹²⁷ another by Harold Faulkner's *Quest for Social Justice*.¹²⁸ neither of these volumes purported to cover the entire subject. Additional contributions to this most exciting chapter in recent American social history are to be found in several volumes which celebrate the accomplishments of four women who gave their lives to the betterment of society. James Weber Linn's *Jane Addams*¹²⁹ necessarily competes with Miss Addams' own autobiographical histories of Hull House; it is a full and inspiring account of the work of the most distinguished woman of her generation. Miss Addams has herself written an appreciation of *My Friend, Julia Lothrop*.¹³⁰ *The Life of Charlotte Perkins Gilman*¹³¹ is an autobiography of that pioneer in the crusade for the emancipation of women whose suicide recently shocked the nation. Mary Heston Vorse's *Footnote to Folly*,¹³² its title reminiscent of the title of Mr. Chamberlain's book, remembers a ca-

¹¹⁸ New York: E. P. Dutton & Co.

¹¹⁹ Houghton Mifflin Co.

¹²⁰ Columbus: Ohio State University Press.

¹²¹ Chicago: Cuneo Press.

¹²² Published by the Author, Lebanon, Tennessee.

¹²³ Macmillan Co.

¹²⁴ Macmillan Co.

¹²⁵ Farrar & Rinehart.

¹²⁶ Lippincott.

¹²⁷ Scribner's Sons.

¹²⁸ Little, Brown.

¹²⁹ Knoxville: S. B. Newman & Co.

¹³⁰ New York: John Day Co.

¹³¹ Appleton-Century.

¹³² Appleton-Century.

reer devoted unselfishly and intelligently to liberal movements in labor and presents a rich gallery of reformers and rebels of the last generation.

The most important contribution to the history of labor that has appeared in some years is the two-volume continuation¹³³ of the great Commons and Associates *History of Labor in the United States*. These two volumes cover the period from 1896 to the present. In one volume Selig Perlman and Paul Taft present the history of organized labor; in another John D. Lescobier and Elizabeth Brandeis deal with non-organized labor. Roland H. Harvey's *Samuel Gompers, Champion of the Toiling Masses*¹³⁴ is sympathetic and intimate and rather lacking in critical acumen. Two monographs on cotton are of interest to the student of labor and economics: *The Collapse of Cotton Tenancy*¹³⁵ by Charles S. Johnson, E. R. Embree, and W. W. Alexander, and *Cotton Goes to Market*¹³⁶ by Alston H. Garside.*

¹³³ Macmillan Co.

¹³⁴ Stanford University Press.

¹³⁵ New York: Frederick A. Stokes Co.

¹³⁶ University of North Carolina Press.

* *Editor's note*—A section on "regionalism" will be published in a later issue.

Current Events in World Affairs

GEORGE H. E. SMITH

Behind the Assassinations in Japan
The World of Politics and Economics

BEHIND THE ASSASSINATIONS IN JAPAN

Within the space of a week Japan passed from a general election to the Diet described as the "dullest yet recorded" to a highly dramatic and bloody attempt at a military *coup* staged by a small portion of the Tokyo garrison. Reports indicate that the uprising is over. Why did it occur? What lay behind it? What bearing does the incident have upon Japanese affairs and upon international relations?

The General Election. Very little enthusiasm attended the election contest although there were twice the number of candidates for the 466 seats in the Diet to be filled. With the military dominant in the nation's affairs for several years an atmosphere of futility had spread over parliamentary activities and the electorate. While there are material differences between the two principal parties, the Seiyukai and the Minseito, the election campaign brought no great issues to the fore. The clash of great personalities was likewise absent. The main question, it was declared, centered chiefly about the general conduct of domestic affairs. Should the Okada Ministry and its mildly moderate policies have the approval of the voters and be continued in office? This was the surface picture drawn by the general pre-election despatches. The real state of affairs is not so simple. But let us follow the general reports a little farther.

Early election returns were very disappointing to the Seiyukai which is strongly conservative, somewhat fascist, and a bitter foe of the more liberal Minseito. On February 22, the standings were reported to be: Minseito, 105 seats; Seiyukai, 84; Shakai Taishuto (Social Masses group), 15; Shawakai, 11; Kokumin Domei, 4; and independents, 17. The returns from the rural districts, said to be the stronghold of the Seiyukai, were incomplete. But several things were already clear from the early trend. The gains of the labor and proletarian groups, made largely at the expense of the Seiyukai, were considerable. It was evident that no clear mandate to control the government was given to the Seiyukai. In fact, the certainty of a majority in the Diet for either major party was very doubtful. A small *bloc*—particularly interested in labor and the lower population levels—might easily operate to defeat major policies of the dominant parties or tilt the balance from one to the other. At best the future seemed to promise nothing but uncertainties and divided counsel. This appeared to be the situation over the week-end to February 24 as the election returns came in. At this point it is necessary to examine the situation of the military.

The Military Dominance. The military and naval leaders, supported by the super-patriots and other civilian sympathizers, had been gaining in strength and influence ever since the World War. Their rise to power might have been more rapid had it not been for the restraining hands of the Emperor, the Elder Statesman Prince Saionji, and such moderates as former Premier Inukai (assassinated in 1932), former Foreign Minister Shidehara, and several members of the Okada Ministry. The Manchurian invasion in September, 1931, showed that the views and leadership of the military had at last gained the upper hand in Japanese national affairs.

But even though dominant, the military did not achieve absolute power. And try

as it might, the military could not silence its domestic opponents or render them ineffectual. In the effort to rid itself of its opponents, the military acted with such intensity that extreme elements within its own ranks carried the struggle to the point of assassination as in 1932. All to no avail. The fight continued between the military with its belief in the strong hand at home and abroad, in extreme aggressive patriotism, in Japanese domination of Eastern Asia, and the civilian moderates who stood for parliamentary government, subordination of the military to the civil power, smaller armament expenditures, and conciliation and coöperation with other nations. While dominant, the military was hampered and harassed steadily and with increasing effectiveness. It had to struggle harder and harder against its own countrymen to carry its points. This was evident at Geneva, in the confusion over the penetration of North China, in the vacillation for a time of the position of the Japanese delegates at the London Conference on naval armaments, and in domestic affairs.

Neither side would surrender. Had the struggle been one merely of differing policies between recognized national groupings it might have continued upon a normal plane indefinitely. Such struggles are going on continually in other nations throughout the world without being carried at any time beyond the range of a normal clash of policies and methods. But the Japanese military was compelled to continue the struggle and raise it far above the normal intensities for a peculiar reason. Any ruling force in government—whether dominant or not—must also have the semblance of legality. By "legality" is meant general recognition and acceptance of the group in relation to the place it occupies and the function it performs in the whole national life. This does not mean that the Japanese do not approve of their military *as military*, nor take pride in its performances. Nor does it mean that to be considered a legal body, there must be a full approval of its policies and acts. But it does mean that the military must have standing in the eyes of its countrymen. The leading men, interests, and a substantial body of the citizenry must look upon it as a legitimate force in national life, filling the proper, *appropriate place* in the national scheme ordinarily associated with such a force. Putting it in another way, the military cannot step out of character and operate in matters not ordinarily connected with military affairs. When it does that it is in danger of losing standing ("face"), respect, legitimacy; it becomes extra-legal.

This is precisely what the Japanese military had done over the last five years. Instead of filling its appropriate place as the military arm of a government practicing constitutional forms, the military assumed to dominate the whole nation. The parliament, the civil authorities and councils, and even the Emperor himself were brushed aside. The military assumed to make its own foreign policies and execute them. It sought to mold domestic affairs after the same pattern. It succeeded in going far. It became the most powerful influence in the nation. It carried this to a high peak in the Shanghai incident in 1932. But it also succeeded in losing its standing. It became an extra-legal force, losing the important element of legality without which it must always continue under the shadow of usurpation and illegitimacy.

Whether the country generally reasoned to such a conclusion is doubtful. People never reason out such things to the fine but fundamental points. But the country acted upon it. It tolerated the opposition of the moderate forces and even permitted them to grow stronger. Patriotic as is the country generally, it did not rise up in wrath and insist upon a free hand for the military when restraints, confusion, uncertainty, and divided councils fettered it. Division of opinion and allegiance appeared within the army itself.

Dominance, the military had. Also it had strong support among many elements making up the national life. But neither one of these factors, nor both combined, was sufficient to give the military the full substance of legality which a ruling force must possess. The nation felt and expressed this. The military felt it even more keenly. This goes a long way to explain why it made such a frenzied effort to whip the country to patriotic fervor. A great wave of patriotism might sweep away opposition and doubt, justify the military's extra-legal rule and give it legitimate standing. That has happened before on other occasions and in other countries. It did not succeed in this case. The military's sense of guilt also explains in large measure the attempts at assassinations. In every defensive group there are some who are driven to blind frenzy by the heat of the struggle. In the lapse of reason or because of the lack of it, these extremists fall back upon the common—but fallacious—belief that all opposition could be destroyed if only the stubborn, oppositionist leaders could be got out of the way. It is a short step from that stage to the act of assassination. Thus, the earlier assassinations took place. But this failed also principally because assassinations do not destroy the kind of opposition which the Japanese military had to fight. And so the military, anxious to have a free hand abroad and at home, was forced to wage a continuous struggle, not against a foreign foe, but against forces within its own national household—forces largely created by itself.

The general elections provided the opportunity for a new tack in this struggle. If the military could ally itself—no matter how covertly—to a strong political party, and if that party should gain the upper hand in the Diet and in the councils of the nation, the great need for standing and legality could be satisfied. Then by gradually bending this party to its own uses, or using it merely as a cover, the military could overcome all important obstacles and have a free hand at last to round out the destiny of the Japanese nation—as they conceived that destiny. Dominant power and preponderant general approval might thus be united. So the military must have reasoned. They supported and staked much upon the Seiyukai whose leaders, policies, and actions were more nearly like their own than were those of any other political party. As the trend of the election returns showed the moderates to be as strong, if not stronger, than before and the Seiyukai weaker, the military was more than ever disappointed and dispirited. Again they had failed to find that elusive "something"—the righteousness and legality of status as above explained.

The Assassinations and Insurrection. The military had no time to take fresh stock of its position before the extremists in its own ranks acted. Two days after the trend of the election was clear, a group of officers and men (estimated in various reports to number between 900 and 3,000) left the Tokyo barracks. They divided into groups and moved upon public buildings and the residences of government officials. They assassinated Finance Minister Korekiyo Takahashi, Viscount Makoto Saito, Lord Keeper of the Privy Seal, and General Jotaro Watanobe, Inspector General of Military Education. They injured seriously Kantoro Suzuki, the Grand Chamberlain, and Count Nobuski Makino, a former government official. Premier Keisuke Okada was at first reported killed also, but he turned up later, after the insurrection was over and resumed his office. Through mistaken identity his brother-in-law had been killed in his stead.

The rebellious forces then took over several public buildings, principally the unfinished Diet building, and remained so established until martial law and overwhelming forces of the loyal, regular army compelled surrender. Two of the rebel leaders

committed suicide. The remainder of the men surrendered group by group. By Saturday, February 29, order and quiet was restored; and all groups in Japan settled back to appraise the meaning of the violent outburst, and speculate upon the future.

The rest of the world had been taken by surprise too. Everywhere there is speculation upon the outcome. If the military succeeded in gaining the upper hand would it not be followed by Japanese militarism run riot over Asia and aggressive policies in international affairs? This was the common belief for several days following the incident. It did not work out that way. The military subdued its own extremists. The loss of the government officials by assassination is deeply regrettable but not irreparable. Premier Okada again heads the government, although it is more than likely he will be retired and another—one less intimately connected with the recent struggle—picked to hold the reins and meet the new Diet. The immediate result is therefore something of a stalemate, with the military badly compromised and chagrined, the moderates in greater favor, and the Japanese people as a whole severely shocked and undoubtedly sobered.

Two Faces East. The world outside of Japan is likely to have something of an "I told you so" attitude. Helpless to stop Japan in her aggressive foreign policies, high authorities in many quarters were waiting for just such an incident as these assassinations. Unthinking and less responsible commentators will go further to declare that Japan has received her just deserts, ironically enough within her own household. Upon two broad, well-informed, groups of thought, however, this family quarrel in Japan and its bloody outcome ought to have a tempering influence. It might help to clear up some of the murky atmosphere in international relations if it has that effect. What are these groups, and how might they be affected in their thought by the event in Japan?

One group has persistently held that ever since the turn of the century, Japan has looked out upon the world from behind two faces: the one portraying war and aggression; the other peace and coöperation. But this group pushes the point still farther. They hold that Japan has never had but one true face—the face of imperialism fixed upon the ultimate goal of absolute domination over the whole of Eastern Asia. They cite the long train of events beginning with the Sino-Japanese War in 1895 and continuing almost uninterruptedly to the latest penetration in the Mongolias and North China. The face of peace and coöperation, members of this group contend, has been at most a mask of transparent gauze scarcely concealing the grim determination to dominate—peaceably if possible—by imperialism and war if necessary; but above all, to dominate. If judged by deeds and simple observation alone, there is much to support this view. Japan has made the world far more familiar with the grim features of aggression and war than with her smiles of peace and friendship. From this it was but a short step for the members of this group to conclude that Japan is civilization's Public Enemy No. 1.

Such a conclusion might be heavily discounted or even dismissed at once as too rash and too journalistic for clear-thinking people to hold were it not for the fact that the same belief is also held in high and responsible quarters. No less a dignitary than the President of the United States implied such a conclusion by his recent annual message to Congress. The speeches of Senator Key Pittman, Chairman of the Senate Committee on Foreign Relations, point strongly in the same direction. Moreover, it is a common conclusion in this country and in Japan that the huge armament expenditures of the United States—exceeding a billion dollars annually—point first and foremost

in the direction of the Pacific and the Far East. For this view too, there are many strong adherents in Great Britain; and Soviet Russia almost universally believes in it. Thus the view that Japan is a hypocritical, insincere, greedy, international bad-boy, sadly in need of a sound thrashing, is a view too widely held to overlook.

On the other hand, another group would maintain its calm and balance against the temptation to indulge in hasty and dangerous generalizations. This group does not deny the evidences of a steady Japanese drive to gain a firm foothold in Asia. Members of this group deplore the fact and the methods which have made the drive appear so ruthless and inexcusable. But they would point out that to divide the world into good and bad nations, like the effort to distinguish between good and bad people, is to descend to a childish simplicity unworthy of intellectual maturity, and to ignore history. Imperialistic tendencies, they say, have accompanied the growth of all modern industrial nations. England, Holland, France, Italy, Germany, and the United States have all yielded to the same force. This force is the same whether it expresses itself through a Versailles Treaty which takes from Germany a colonial empire and parcels it out among her victorious opponents; whether it takes the form of Italy's place in the Ethiopian sun; whether it is a "neutrality" law which throws the halo of peace around the steel helmet of profits from war; or whether it is Japan in the rôle of Don Quixote defending (with better material equipment though with less comparable philosophical virtue) the honor and civilization of Asia. At bottom the forces are the same. And these nations are not "bad" nations because they act in such fashions. These nations are inseparable parts of contemporary civilization. Their imperialistic tendencies—all they have done and are—is nothing less than that civilization itself unfolding. Why hold against one that which is equally attributable to all?

The recent Japanese uprising should temper both of these views. It should induce those who look upon Japan as an international Public Enemy to turn back to recorded history and to consider the present positions of their own and other nations. It should lead them to discard such fancies as a nation—any nation—strutting across the world's stage with a face marked with hatred and brutality behind a mask wreathed in smiles and benevolence. To those who look upon Japan as a victim of an imperfect civilization in common with all other nations, the uprising—its meaning and result—should operate to confirm them in the wisdom of their temperate attitude. It should help them to keep their eyes steadfast upon the real, fundamental lines along which progress will be made. It should encourage them to know they have allies even in the most unexpected quarters—in the very rashness of destructive forces themselves.

To both groups everywhere, this uprising should act as a spur to stir them to the ever-pressing need to get at the real causes of imperialism and war—not in someone else's nation—but right within their own nation and in their own local community where a thousand outposts stretching away to war and mass violence must be met and conquered before world peace can prevail.

THE WORLD OF POLITICS AND ECONOMICS

There is little of "system" or "order" in the world of politics and economics to comfort those simple souls who long to return to the "world system" or the "world order" which they keep telling us existed in the dim past before the World War. If the present is the outgrowth of the past, and if the future is to be the fruit of the present, then there is precious little of system and order in world affairs. Nor could there have been at any time within the memory of man if the records he has left bear

him witness. Rather it is the other way round—incessant change, growth and decay, confusion and conflict. To those who would look forward hopefully to some future world system or order of idyllic magnitude, consider the present which is preparing that future millennium.

The Left Victory in Spain. The general election to the Spanish Cortes in mid-February resulted in an overwhelming victory for the "Leftists" as against the "Rightists." There is no large middle class in Spain. The Rightists comprise the conservative elements, the aristocracy, the owners of landed estates, and the clericals, principally Catholics. The Leftists in this election were made up of the "united front" of socialists, workers and peasants, such radicals as the Catalans who have local independence, and the communists. Except for sporadic outbursts of violence, the elections were not generally disorderly. Women voted for the first time. But after the returns confirmed the left victory, pandemonium broke out in their celebration. The Socialist Manuel Azana was picked to head the new Cabinet. The first act of the new government was to proclaim a decree of amnesty to the thousands of political prisoners filling the jails ever since the October, 1934, revolt. General disorder held complete sway for several days. Churches were assailed, clericals deprived of what privileges remained to them, and the members of the unpopular aristocracy crossed the border into France in a steady stream. For the moment the victory of the "united front" has obscured the differences and conflicts between the groups which joined forces to defeat the Rightists. But already there is talk that Azana and his socialist followers is to the Spanish revolution what Kerensky and the Provisional Government was to the Russian revolution before the Communists seized full power. Francisco Largo Caballero represents the extreme wing of the Leftists. He cast his ballot with the united front to assure its victory. The struggle for power between the moderate and the extreme socialists may be as violent as was the previous struggle by both against the conservatives, aristocracy, and clericals. It may begin when the newly-elected Cortes is convened March 16.

Revolt in Paraguay. Like so many other South American countries, Paraguay has all the standard constitutional forms for changing its governing officials by peaceful elections, but continues to use bullets in place of ballots. In a military *coup* on February 17, army leaders and forces stationed in the barracks outside of Asuncion moved upon that city, seized the vantage points, established headquarters in the station of the Central Paraguay Railroad, and finally took over full control of the government. The revolt was a surprise move confined almost to the capital, and there was little of the intense fighting between loyal troops and insurgents which usually accompanies revolutions. President Eusebio Ayala and General Estigarribia who had led the Paraguayan forces in the Chaco war with Bolivia surrendered to rebel army leaders. Colonel Rafael Franco, former subordinate to General Estigarribia, inspired the revolutionists. He was proclaimed Provisional President. So frequent do these violent changes occur in Latin American countries that they have begun to lose importance as news. It is news now if a country on that continent can hold and carry through a peaceful constitutional election. But in this case there is importance owing to the fact that the revolt expresses dissatisfaction with the Chaco peace proceedings and may upset them. The peace treaty has been signed, hostilities were ended, and negotiations under the peace terms are in progress. The new government declared its intention of going on with the proceedings, and it may well do so, but it will appoint new representatives. It is great fun representing these Latin American countries abroad as consular and diplo-

matic officials. Immediately upon the success of the revolution, orders of dismissal were sent to all officials representing the old régime in foreign countries. Today you are fêted as the distinguished Ambassador of the great country of Dipsomania; tomorrow you are out looking for a new job. Montague Glass—I believe it was Montague Glass—used to have a character in *Nize Baby* who often asked "Ees dees a seestem?"

The Naval Conference and the Sanctions Issue. Just when it looked as though the nations remaining at the Conference table might salvage at least part of an agreement on naval armaments from impotent negotiations, the whole proceeding became involved in a tangle. By February 11, two agreements seemed to satisfy all the delegates. They were an agreement to carry out an annual exchange of naval building plans and thus prevent suspicion and secret operations, and an understanding upon the sizes of ships and gun calibers on all but warships. Then the troubles commenced. Through the French Ambassador at Washington, Andre de Laboulaye, France tried to induce the United States to agree to battleship limitations at a size below 35,000 tons. It was an appeal practically over the head of the American delegation at London, although it is reported that Mr. Norman Davis, who heads the delegation, knew of the effort. It failed when Under-Secretary of State William Phillips referred the question back to the American delegation which stood solid upon their demand for the larger ships. A second tangle resulted when France positively refused to fall in with the British suggestion that Germany be invited to the Conference. From the beginning of the month, Great Britain wanted Germany in on the negotiations. She has a treaty with Germany which limits German naval strength to thirty-five per cent of her own, but leaves Germany free to make up this percentage in any size of ships and guns. France, who had resented the Anglo-German treaty, persisted in her objection to German participation at the Conference on the ground that this would amount to her condonation of the breaking of the Versailles Treaty which she took the naval treaty to imply. Upon this issue, and her unwillingness to sign any naval agreements before she holds the general elections, France served notice at the end of the month that she may initial a treaty but will not fully sign, accept, and make it effective.

But the prize snag entangling the negotiations was Italy's declaration on February 24, that she will not sign or be bound by any treaty of naval limitations until all sanctions against her are ended. Putting this bit of irony in another way it might be considered something like this: a man is wanted in Texas for murder. He is arrested in New York. He refuses to go back to Texas until the charge of murder held against him there is dropped. Of course, irony such as this does not succeed in domestic affairs because we have extradition laws which will send a man back to answer such a charge whether he is willing to go or not. But no such proceedings can be taken with an entire nation in international affairs as the Geneva sanctions negotiations show. So the international "policeman" will have to plead with the aggressor not to wreck the station house when the law tries to stop the aggression.

These tangles left the naval conference helpless and confused. The American delegation refuses to become involved in what is regarded purely as a European tangle; and it is marking time. Great Britain seeks to overcome French objections to Germany by arranging to add an annex on to last summer's treaty to bind Germany to qualitative restrictions just as if Germany participated in the present negotiations. Adjournment may be taken until after the French elections and after the rains put a natural halt to Italy's African invasion. In this way it is hoped that all the tangles will be

straightened out. But when it is all over each nation will still have the power to build as large a navy as it desires so far as number of ships is concerned, with only minor limitations on the size and gun calibers. Thus, the people do not want war; the diplomats do not want war; but all nations are straining every sinew and fiber of national life to build up huge armies and navies—just in case.

In his first speech as Foreign Minister before the House of Commons, Anthony Eden tries to explain this curious paradox. Answering critics who accused his government of deliberate delay on sanctions, he endeavored to show that England had acted promptly at all times. Before Italy invaded Africa nothing could be done. (But Ethiopia placed the situation before the League ten months before a shot was fired—England and the League did nothing, even though the prime purpose of the League is to settle disputes before they ripen into war.) After war broke out, Mr. Eden declared, England and the League worked fast to settle the dispute or apply sanctions. (This is true—see *THE SOCIAL STUDIES*, XXVI, December, 1935, 547-549.) On the question of oil sanctions, oil to Italy from British sources decreased in the last quarter of 1935, while oil from American sources increased several times. For this reason, Mr. Eden implied that Great Britain was helpless on this point—not dilatory. (American oil shipments to Italy did increase, but only after the United States through Mr. Ickes made a genuine effort to curb them and found that the League and Great Britain did not also throw in their support—see *THE SOCIAL STUDIES*, XXVII, March, 1936, 197-198; and also "Oil Embargo Delays," by Allan Nevins, in *Current History*, XLIII, March, 1936, 614-619.) Mr. Eden's explanation stopped just at the crucial point where explanations should have been made.

His address has other points of interest. "Eighteen years after the close of the war to end war, we find ourselves confronted with the same problems dreadfully similar in character and portent to those before 1914." How would he now escape the aftermath of 1914? Answering the demands of Germany, Italy, and Japan for a redistribution of colonies and raw materials, Mr. Eden declared that Great Britain "is perfectly willing at any time to enter into an examination of this subject" and then he added "The appropriate moment, . . . must clearly depend on many factors . . ." That is not so. To take that view is to use the same old saw of disposing of matters without ever having to settle them. We have that tactic in the "Indian giver" who gets all the credit for generosity and high-mindedness without doing a thing to deserve it. The time for Great Britain to do her share in rectifying the Versailles Treaty and other international errors, that will eventually be corrected by war if not sooner done, is now. To wait for an "appropriate moment" is to drift—as nations drifted between 1900-1914—and the result is almost a foregone conclusion. This does not apply to Great Britain alone, but to every major European nation and the United States and Japan as well.

Meanwhile, Mr. Eden would have Britain re-arm, but only for collective security. France is arming for collective security. Italy has armed for and against collective security. In fear of collective security, Germany has armed against it. All nations are arming for collective security. The result is not collective security, but an arms' race and eventually war. Mr. Eden himself sees as much when he says: "We have to re-arm because of lack of confidence and good-will among nations and because of the obsession of fear." Well, every other nation has said the same thing. Mr. Eden and the Baldwin National Government do not want collective security when it really works like collective security as in the Italian case; they want it their way—increased British

armaments. Every other nation feels much the same way. And that is not collective security. It is the prelude to the next war.

Following are some enlightening aspects on these types of international questions:

A series of articles by Charles A. Beard in the *New Republic*, LXXXVI, beginning with the March 4, 1936 issue. The first item on "Keeping America at Peace" entitled "The Devil Theory of History and War" (100-102) is a clear and excellent explanation of how the United States got into the World War.

In "We Militarize," in the *Atlantic Monthly*, CLVII, for February, 1936 (138-149), Oswald Garrison Villard describes the huge arms' expenditures in this country.

Set these against "Underwriting Central Europe," by Peter Drucker, in the *Virginia Quarterly Review*, XII, January, 1936 (15-28).

Recent Happenings in the Social Studies

THE NATIONAL COUNCIL FOR THE SOCIAL STUDIES MEETING IN ST. LOUIS

The National Council for the Social Studies held two sessions, a luncheon and a dinner at Hotel Jefferson, St. Louis, February 22. The morning session was centered about the theme "Rebuilding the Social Studies Program." C. H. McClure, Northern Missouri State Teachers College, Kirksville, presented a discussion of "How Should Objectives Affect the Rebuilding of the Social-Studies Program?" William B. Brown in "What Place Has Method in Planning and Operating the Program?" described the place of method and current practices in the Los Angeles program. Leslie A. Butler, Superintendent of Schools, Grand Rapids, presented "The Superintendent's Part in Building a Social-Studies Program," while the teacher's part in the same endeavor was discussed by Virgil Stinebaugh, Director of Junior High Schools and Curriculum Revision, Indianapolis. Ralph W. Tyler, Ohio State University in "How Can We Hope to Evaluate the Outcomes of Our Program?" described problems, procedures, and difficulties in the evaluation of instruction in the social studies.

At the luncheon session, A. J. Stoddard, President of the Department of Superintendence, in "The Social Studies in the School of the Future," predicted a wider use and expansion of the social-studies program, more civic responsibility and participation for pupils both in the school and in the larger adult community, the development of critical thinking in terms of problems which are real to and within the levels of experiences of pupils. Isador Loeb, Dean of the School of Business and Public Administration, Washington University, in "Constitutional Interpretation in a Transitional Period," pointed out some of the inconsistencies and far-reaching implications of six recent decisions of the United States Supreme Court. While recognizing the importance of judicial review as an essential phase of our governmental structure, Dean Loeb also pointed out the enormous difficulties involved in framing an amendment to give Congress power over social and economic conditions of work and labor.

The afternoon session was devoted to the *Sixth Yearbook: Elements of the Social Studies Program*, which will be reviewed in a later issue. Paul T. Rankin, Supervising Director of Curriculum and Research, Detroit, in "The Social-Studies Program Viewed as a Whole," pointed out some of the proposals, problems and techniques, and ways of evaluating a cumulative program. Howard E. Wilson, De Forest Stull, R. M. Tryon, and Howard C. Hill described phases and issues of their contribution to the yearbook. The general discussion from the floor was introduced by H. R. Tucker and Edgar B. Wesley.

At the business session a new constitution drafted by a committee—Howard C. Hill, Chairman—was adopted. An announcement was made of the appointment of two committees: (1) a committee to prepare a pamphlet on tests in American history, Howard R. Anderson, University of Iowa, Chairman; (2) a committee to develop a bulletin on pamphlets suitable for use in instruction in the social studies, Edgar B. Wesley, Chairman. The chairman of the latter committee urges the coöperation of teachers in the gathering of materials for use by the committee.

Following an informal dinner officers and members discussed themes for future yearbooks, tentative plans for the November meeting in Detroit, and suggestions for the improvement of *The Social Studies*.

THE DEPARTMENT OF SUPERINTENDENCE YEARBOOK

The Fourteenth Yearbook of the Department, entitled *The Social Studies Curriculum*, will be reviewed in a later issue. One general program at the St. Louis meeting was devoted to it. In addition to Charles A. Beard's address, referred to below, each member of the Yearbook Commission contributed to a Jury Panel Discussion a brief summary of the salient features of his own contribution to the book. A statement of principles set forth in the yearbook includes:

- (1) Government with the consent of the governed as contrasted with government by dictatorial force imposed by stratagem and violence. Government with the consent of the governed requires the establishment and preservation of issues, liberty of the ballot, freedom of candidacy, open presentation of issues, liberty of press and discussion, an educated electorate, and the right of the people to alter their fundamental laws by established processes as changed conditions call for alterations in the powers and forms of government.
- (2) The use of government, economy, the natural endowment of the nation, and the technical arts for the promotion of the general welfare and for the creation and maintenance of the highest possible standard of life and well-being for all the people, as distinguished from the privileges of any class.
- (3) The preservation of personal liberty—full religious liberty and freedom of press, speech, assembly and petition—as opposed to capricious and irresponsible tyranny.
- (4) The preservation of the rights of property lawfully acquired against arbitrary seizure and confiscation, and the application of the rule that property is to be taken only for public purposes and by due process in which burdens fall with the same weight on all persons similarly situated.
- (5) The protection of private rights against arbitrary action, by the maintenance of fixed processes guaranteeing speedy and open hearings in courts of law, right of counsel, right of jury trial, and right of impartial judgment.
- (6) The enforcement of law by duly constituted officials alone and the repudiation of all private persons and organizations that try to take upon themselves the functions of judges and executioners.
- (7) The assumption of full individual responsibility in the discharge of private and public obligations.

OTHER PROGRAMS DEALING WITH THE SOCIAL STUDIES

A panel discussion dealing with "The Improvement of Social Studies Teaching" was presented at one session of the Department of Supervisors and Directors of Instruction, with Arthur H. Moehlman, Ohio State University, as chairman. The discussion was centered about techniques, modern social trends, and the balances between the two necessary to create more realistic approaches to the problems of the improvement of instruction.

Many speakers on other programs dealt directly or by implication with the social studies. Glenn Frank, President of the University of Wisconsin, in "Foundations of the National Being," asserted:

It is not enough that the schools give their students a neutral listing of the dilemmas of the time. The schools must set lamps burning in those dark places where social decisions falter for want of light.

Declaring that our democratic form of government may go the way of other self-governments of the past unless the schools can produce more free and disciplined minds, he said further:

Yet the paradox of the situation is that now, just when we most need freedom and fearlessness in the school's handling of basic issues of the times, waves of popular hysteria against a free, fearless scholarship begin to beat over the schools.

Frederick H. Bair, Superintendent of Schools, Shaker Heights, Ohio, in discussing the Fourteenth Yearbook, declared:

To argue that the generation of boys and girls now coming on should avoid all live issues is ridiculous and un-American; they cannot avoid them if they would. To hold that they should

attack such issues shallowly, in a partisan spirit or with timidity is unworthy of the caliber of the issues or of the breed of the boys and girls. The challenge here is to teachers, not pedagogues; and to education, not mere animal training.

In "Some Victory for Humanity," Payson Smith of Massachusetts, in sketching the relationships between education and democratic institutions, asserted that:

It is not only not necessary that the youth of America should be taught that the structure of their government is a completed thing, but it is thoroughly dangerous to our institutions that any such theory should be accepted. There ought to be enough reliance upon the essential ability of the race to take care of its interests to justify deliberate instruction to the effect that modification and change are essential even to the continued existence of popular rule.

In line with the reiterated demand for untrammelled consideration of controversial issues in social-studies classrooms, one general session was devoted to a demonstration class of seniors in "Problems of Democracy" from the Cleveland High School, St. Louis, conducted by Roy W. Hatch, State Teachers College, Upper Montclair, New Jersey, which received many favorable remarks on the part of those in attendance.

CONTINUING OPPOSITION TO LOYALTY OATHS

In the New York legislature representatives of a host of teachers' organizations at a public hearing supported the Kaminsky bill to repeal the Ives Teachers Oath law. Telegrams opposing oaths from President Conant of Harvard University, President Angell of Yale University, President Woolley of Mount Holyoke College, Dean Gauss of Princeton University, and others were read. Professor G. H. R. O'Donnell of Skidmore College is reported in *The New York Times*, February 19, as having made the observation: "These oaths never appear until times of crisis. We teachers seem to be the first ones these prejudice-hunters single out."

The members of the committee, representatives of patriotic organizations, and members of the teachers' groups are reported to have become entangled in an argument over the meaning of Americanism. Edward N. Scheiberling, State Commander of the American Legion, opposing repeal of the Ives statute, is quoted as saying:

We believe in Americanism. Any red-blooded loyal American is proud to take an oath by God. We want to keep the Constitution inviolate. If they want to change the Constitution they can go about it in the right way.

Extraneous arguments, red herrings, and confused issues thus becloud the situation in New York.

Meanwhile the Massachusetts Society for Freedom of Teaching is reported to be gaining ground and influence in opposition to loyalty oaths. An A.P. dispatch in *The New York Sun*, March 2, reports that all eligible members of the staff of Wellesley College signed a petition in opposition to the oath law. Earlier instances of organized opposition to the Massachusetts law were reported in these columns in earlier issues.

At the meeting of the John Dewey Society for the Study of Education and Culture, in St. Louis, February 23, a resolution adopted urged the educational associations meeting in St. Louis to appoint a committee "to investigate the growing menace of loyalty oaths and take steps to secure the repeal of laws providing for them." Speaking at the same meeting, William McAndrew called oaths "a bludgeon for striking in the mouth those who are fighting for freedom . . . I'd swear," said McAndrew, "at those meddlers, musclers-in, and know-nothings who are forever bothering us with their fuddy-duddy stuff." He then proposed an oath to which he thought a teacher could swear allegiance:

I swear to defend the equal rights of citizens to life, liberty, and the pursuit of happiness.

I swear in accordance with American right and duty to favor a change in government when government fails to secure these rights.

I swear that I will aid teachers to secure for the people of this nation a more perfect union, justice, domestic tranquility, general welfare, and the blessings of liberty.

I swear in accordance with the promise of our constitution that I shall resist all efforts to abridge the privileges or immunities of citizens of the United States, including teachers.

In furtherance of this, my solemn oath, I pledge my life, my fortune, and my sacred honor.

While the Department of Superintendence and other associations meeting in St. Louis did not follow the resolution of the John Dewey Society to appoint a committee to investigate loyalty oaths and to take steps looking toward the repeal of statutes, the position of the new president of the Department, A. L. Thielkelk, Superintendent of Schools, Denver, is embodied in a statement in *The New York World-Telegram*, February 28, in which he is reported to have said:

I believe in being loyal to the fundamental ideals of our country, but I don't consider it necessary to require oaths to have loyal teachers.

The objection is that the oath is likely to create a situation in which teachers will be intimidated and afraid to speak their minds on any subject for fear they will be accused of violating the oath. It can be used as a club in a way that was not intended. There are those who think the backers of the oath want to prevent thinking.

Teachers should be free to express their ideas on important matters. They should not indoctrinate, however.

FREEDOM OF TEACHING

Closely allied with loyalty oaths in the St. Louis meetings were the considerations essential to preserve freedom of teaching, which many believed to be violated or seriously impaired by loyalty oaths. The Department of Superintendence, in an unusual and stormy general session went on record in a resolution in strong opposition, with only three dissenting votes, to the removal of Payson Smith as Commissioner of Education in Massachusetts. Dean Holmes of Harvard is quoted in *The New York Times*, February 26, as having declared:

Dr. Smith was ousted by a political trick.

Governor Curley referred his nomination for reappointment to a council which he knew in advance would refuse it. Nobody who knows the facts can doubt the effect of political considerations from beginning to end.

The Department also opposed re-enactment of the rider to the District of Columbia appropriation bill opposing the "payment of salary to any person teaching or advocating communism" (see these columns: XXVII, February, 1936, 129-130; March, 1936, 204-205, and earlier issues) on the ground that it violated another resolution adopted which declared that teachers are obligated to "present all available facts in controversial issues." They notified Superintendent Ballou of their stand in a resolution on this important matter.

Perhaps the most constructive suggestion on freedom of teaching, among the many discussions in which it was featured at the sessions in St. Louis, was offered by Charles A. Beard, in an address on "The Scholar in An Age of Conflict," published in the February 29 issue of *School and Society* (XLIII, 278-83). Among other suggestions, he said:

If we are to uphold and defend the liberties and responsibilities of education, we must take a leaf from the book of the patriots who founded the American Republic. They wrote the principles of liberty in fundamental laws and they provided agencies, tribunals, and procedures for their enforcement. From the field of constitutional law, organized education in America must borrow its guiding rules. In the light of constitutional experience, its immediate obligations are clear. They are:

- (1) To draft a national code of good practice for the teaching of subjects which in their

nature involve or touch upon controversial questions—a code incorporating the fundamental liberties of press, speech, and religious worship guaranteed by our constitutions.

(2) To define the rights and duties of teachers and pupils in conducting classroom exercises.

(3) To secure the coöperation of parents and school boards.

(4) To provide rules of procedure for the examination and adjudication of specific cases of controversy.

(5) To publish a constitution for the teaching profession, setting forth the principles, rules, and procedure of good practice.

(6) To educate teachers and the public in the liberties, responsibilities and duties of inquiry, research and scholarship in American society.

(7) To establish a national body, perhaps connected with the National Education Association, provided with funds and competent legal talent and charged with the duty of free scientific inquiry before the public in general and in particular communities beset by witchburners and fanatics.

FORTHCOMING MEETINGS

The Spring meeting of the Middle States Association of History Teachers will be held at the University of Delaware and in Wilmington, Delaware, April 24-25. The Friday afternoon session will be devoted to "American Neutrality Policy," while the Saturday morning session will deal with "Relationships Between Secondary School and College History." The dinner on Friday evening will include the Presidential Address by Donald L. McMurry, State Teachers College, Upper Montclair, New Jersey. There will also be a luncheon session on Saturday. For program and other details, write Erling M. Hunt, Secretary-Treasurer, Teachers College, Columbia University, New York City.

The Social-Science Section of the New York Society for the Experimental Study of Education will hold a meeting April 3 at 8:00 P.M. in the Commerce Building of the College of the City of New York, 23rd Street and Lexington Avenue. The topic for discussion is "Social Education in Nazi Germany." Speakers include: I. L. Kandel, Teachers College, Columbia University; Paul R. Radosavlzevich, New York University.

The Spring meeting of the Eastern Sociological Society will be held in New Haven, Connecticut, April 18-19. The general theme of the sessions is: Social Theory and the Social Order, with separate programs on "Economics and the Social Order," "Social Psychology and the Social Order," and related subjects. For a complete program and other information, write the Secretary, Earl E. Muntz, School of Commerce, New York University.

The Spring meeting of the American Academy of Political and Social Science will be held in Philadelphia, April 24-25. The general theme is "World Economic and Political Reorganization." For further details, write to the Academy, 3457 Walnut Street, Philadelphia.

The semi-annual meeting of The Academy of Political Science will be held at Hotel Astor, New York City, April 2. The general theme is "Economic Recovery and Monetary Stabilization." For further details write the Director, Fayerweather Hall, Columbia University, New York City.

A meeting of the New Jersey Committee on the Cause and Cure of War is to be held at Princeton University, April 24-25, dealing with the general theme "International Coöperation."

ANOTHER SOCIAL-STUDIES PROGRAM

In the December issue of *The Educational News Bulletin* (Kalamazoo, Michigan, Western State Teachers College) (VI, 16-23), Floyd Haight describes "A Proposed Social-Science Program," the major outlines of which we reprint here.

SEVENTH GRADE

FIRST SEMESTER

Historical Geography. Emphasis upon European expansion into the western hemisphere.

SECOND SEMESTER

American History. "How our country came to be what it is." Period through the close of the Civil War and the war's economic and social effects.

EIGHTH GRADE

American History. The effects of invention and the coming of big business. The study should include present problems.

Civics. The history of our government and its operation.

NINTH GRADE

Elements of Geography. A study of the relationships of man's life to the environmental conditions in various parts of the world. The economic and political, as well as the social, adjustments man makes to natural environmental conditions should constitute a large part of the course.

Commercial and Industrial Geography. A study of the commodities produced, the transportation needed to satisfy wants, the intelligent use of the earth's resources, and the necessary alliances of man with nature in securing a living. Emphasis upon a sympathetic understanding of people of various regions and the need of international coöperation.

Community Civics. An introduction to the social, economic, and civic problems of American life in order that an understanding may be developed of how, through coöperative efforts, the local community may be made a better place in which to live.

Elements of Geography.
Commercial Geography
alternating.

TENTH GRADE

World History. A survey course covering the period from early times to the Napoleonic period, stressing the chief contribution and main moments of early peoples.

World History. Napoleonic period to the present time, pointing out rivalries, mistakes, contributions, and the effects of all of these upon the various nations during the period.

Ancient History.

Medieval History.

ELEVENTH GRADE

American History. Important developments in American history through the Civil War.

American History. Post Civil War period. Emphasis upon an understanding of our complicated domestic and foreign problems, their causes and the public's attempts to solve them.

Modern History.

Modern History.

TWELFTH GRADE

Civics. The organization of the political institutions of the United States. Emphasis upon the actual functioning of governments.

Economics. A study of the economic organization in order to give an understanding of the great economic system of which every person is a part.

Economics.

Sociology. A study of the social organization that exists and the attempts being made by the public to better conditions of life.

Civics.

POST-GRADUATE

International Relations.

Europe since 1870.

Practical Politics.

English History.

The author suggests definite objectives, flexible methods and techniques, classroom libraries, and the development of essential skills as essential elements in the development of the program.

AMONG THE PROFESSIONAL MAGAZINES

In the February issue of *High Points* (New York City) (XVIII, 5-18), Louis M. Jaffe and William Feingold, in "Teaching for the Ultimate Objectives in the Social Studies," contribute a detailed lesson plan with references, questions and problems, statistics, and other materials on sectionalism. The purpose of the lesson is "To develop the causes of the Civil War in order to provide an understanding of the bases of historical movements."

In the same issue (31-36), Ralph B. Guinness describes a lesson on Negro slavery and a conversation with a former student embodying basic considerations in social-studies instruction under the title "But You Did All The Work." In the course of the conversation, the author makes a pertinent observation on education which should stimulate discussion:

To be consistent with my criticism of education, ideally I should have directed the students to do some reading on biology and on anthropology, but aside from lack of available material their education has been neglected. They lack the skills, as Morrison says, with the tools of study. But more important than that, the pupils are not here for an education. They are here to become somewhat skilled in earning their own living, but chiefly to be automatons; to learn to read but not to think, to accept Nationalism and Capitalism without question, to support wars if they come. The whole thing is just one mess of misunderstanding and wrong psychological interpretations of life. Those in power are really unaware of the unethical nature of society, if it may be called that, and of the educational system which recapitulates it. Education, such as it is, fosters, renews, and strengthens the egocentric maladjustments through wrong information and methods of learning, which build the very neuroses and psychoses which threaten instability of life through riots, crime, depressions, and wars. If our education were in accord with sound principles of pedagogy, science, and ethics, we could build for wholesome adjustments whereby insecurities, angers, and hatreds caused by competition for independent security would be liquidated.

MATERIALS FOR TEACHERS AND PUPILS

The January issue of *Law and Contemporary Problems* (Duke Station, Durham, North Carolina, \$2.00 per year) is entitled "Unemployment Compensation"; it contains fifteen substantial articles stressing the statutes, court decisions, and administrative orders and rules of the different historical and contemporaneous plans for handling the compensation of the unemployed, in relation to relief, the Social Security Act, and other similar legislation. This is an indispensable issue of a publication that is invaluable for teachers of modern problems who wish to read authoritative presentations of various aspects of controversial issues and problems.

The March issue of *Congressional Digest* (2131 LeRoy Place, Washington, D.C.) is sub-titled "The New Soil Conservation Act—Substitute for A.A.A.," with a brief legislative history of the Act and representative articles favorable to and in opposition to it.

The current issue of *Building America* (425 West 123rd Street, New York City) is entitled "Communication." The current unit, No. 11, of *Our Times* (American Education Press, Columbus, Ohio) is devoted to "Public Utilities." Both of these publications, suitable for pupil use in a variety of ways, have been described in more detail in these columns in earlier issues.

Book Reviews and Book Notes

National Economic Security. By Arthur B. Adams. Norman: University of Oklahoma Press, 1936. Pp. 328. \$2.50.

This volume differs from those works in economics which pretend merely to describe "things as they are." The author has received a technical training, has had wide experience in economic affairs, and commands knowledge of theory and practice. But he is not content with a mere effort to describe. He uses his knowledge in an attempt to discover policies which should be adopted to bring about a secure and decent way of economic life in the United States. Incidentally, he gives a careful analysis of New Deal legislation, which is invaluable for students of recent history.

Quite rightly Mr. Adams contends that we must search for the fundamental condition which made possible the depression before we can discuss intelligently remedial measures. He finds the root of our difficulties in the mal-distribution of national income under the *laissez faire* policy. As wealth is now distributed, the masses of people have too little buying power and the owners of property have enormous incomes which they try to invest in the building of new plants. Hence there is a lack of balance. There is not enough buying power to keep our productive machinery running at a high tempo. Here in substance is the root of the depression. From this point of view efforts to get industry started by lending it money, by "priming the pump," by inflating the currency, and by public works are doomed to fail. The causes of the deadlock lie deeper, and policy must strike at the conditions which are responsible for the deadlock.

What must be done then? Mr. Adams answers. The real wages of workers in industries must be raised. The real incomes of farmers must be increased by adjusting farm production to consumer demand and by reducing the interest on farm debts. Monopolistic control over production and prices must be broken by federal incorporation of industrial concerns and federal regulation of corporate transactions. The general burden of debts must be scaled. Those who receive high incomes should bear the brunt of the burden of supporting government by paying high and progressive income taxes. Huge family fortunes should be greatly reduced or broken up by inheritance, gift, and other taxes. Thus what is called the capitalist system would not be destroyed. Private ownership of the tools of production would not be abolished. Competition and a struggle for profits would remain. But the government would intervene to force a more equal distribution of wealth. If the Constitution stands in the way, Mr. Adams would amend the Constitution.

Briefly stated, with many details omitted, this is our author's thesis. He believes that it is in keeping with American traditions and that only by attacking the depression along such lines can the nation find permanent security. A "recovery" in the old style would merely mean preparation for another burst and calamity. We must go to the root of our difficulty.

This approach to the crisis is timely, now that the noise of the presidential campaign is heard again. Mr. Adams' volume provides a wholesome antidote to the rattle, chatter, and claptrap of office seekers. Particular items in it may be vigorously criticized, but those who prefer knowledge and thought to uproar, rumor, whispering, and bad names will find guidance and substance in this work. It neglects some matters which the present reviewer would like to see emphasized, but the reviewer is not writing the book.

CHARLES A. BEARD

New Milford, Connecticut

Woodrow Wilson, Life and Letters—Neutrality 1914-1915. By Ray Stannard Baker. Garden City: Doubleday, Doran & Co. 1935. Pp. xii, 409. \$4.00.

The fifth volume of Mr. Baker's *Life of Wilson* comes at an opportune time. Although it does not bring the story of our neutrality down to our entry into the War, this volume covers the most important period 1914-1915—when our neutrality was being converted irrevocably into a war policy. So many studies have recently appeared that lack of material can no longer be pleaded in defense of ignorance of this critical period in our history. The studies of Millis, *Road to War*, and of Seymour, *American Neutrality*, to mention but two, have presented us briefs for sharply opposite points of view with respect to the basic causes of our entry into war.

It is of course impossible to give in the space of a brief review any adequate analysis of the rich materials contained in this volume. Mr. Baker writes from the unique advantage of having available all the documentary material in the President's private files, as well as a variety of published and other unpublished materials at his disposal. Mr. Baker's analysis goes far to conform the thesis of Walter Millis and the school of those who find in this period the inevitable working out of the forces of economic interest. This "American (neutrality) policy was reduced to futility. Lansing sought vainly to straight-jacket the controversies into the neat traditions of an outworn international legalism—while Europe was dealing terribly with instrumentalities, submarines, aeroplanes, poison gas and the like, which were beyond law. . . . There was no way then to remain truly neutral, there will be no way in future world wars unless we are prepared for the self-discipline and the economic losses resulting from embargoes and other restrictions" (pp. 362-363).

No more important study of that period, for an understanding of the present, will appear. Mr. Baker has succeeded in unravelling the complicated web of motives, interests, and attitudes which played about the issue of our neutrality; and in making the protagonists in the struggle over policy, which centered in the White House, appear in something like a final perspective. It may be noted that Bryan emerges from these pages a far more significant figure and acute thinker than in many previous studies of the period. And the forces which overwhelmed his policy turned out to be essentially the same which defeated the President himself in the final controversies over American "rights." It should be required reading for those Senators and others who are today talking so loudly about "freedom of the seas."

While a good many of the more important public papers here utilized have been published previously in various studies of the period, their arrangement in the context of the more intimate revelations of the day-to-day working of President Wilson's mind gives them a further interest and new shades of meaning. And Mr. Baker's charm of style adds greatly to the delight of reading this volume.

PHILLIPS BRADLEY

The League of Nations and the Rule of Law 1918-1935. By Sir Alfred Zimmern. New York: Macmillan Co., 1936. Pp. xi, 527.

Sir Alfred Zimmern's survey of the League of Nations is almost equally divided between a study of its origin and its historical background in the development of an international organization, and of its actual evolution at the Peace Conference and its working structure and activities since 1920. While the author does not pretend to introduce any particular new materials he has succeeded in arranging those already existing in a highly readable and equally satisfying perspective.

The author spends a good deal of time on the immediate antecedents of the

League as developed in the war-time coöperative organizations, inter-allied war-time organizations, and in the various projects for a League which sprang up especially in America after 1914. He also describes, with greater clarity and precision than most other accounts, the conflicts of interest between the American and British viewpoints which were finally reconciled in the accepted draft of the Covenant at the Versailles Conference.

In the second section, it is obvious that in just over two hundred pages only the most general account of the work of the League and of its functioning can be expected; nor does Sir Alfred pretend to comprehensiveness. What he has done is to present briefly and precisely a review and appraisal of the more important political activities with which the League has been concerned. There is an interesting and useful chapter on "The League as a Working Mechanism," and a final chapter on "The League and the Old Diplomacy." In view of the author's long association with some of the non-political activities of the League, it is greatly to be hoped that he will give us another volume dealing with this aspect of the Geneva experiment; for "the rule of law" in international as in national jurisdiction is increasingly becoming a matter not so much of policy as of its detailed execution.

PHILLIPS BRADLEY

A History of the Far East. By G. Nye Steiger. Boston: Ginn & Co., 1936. Pp. vii, 928. \$4.75.

Professor Steiger, who is Associate Professor of History at Simmons College, attempts to give here, within the covers of one book, a survey of the complex and confusing history of the Eastern peoples. More specifically, he deals with the histories of China, India, Central Asia, Korea, Japan, Indo-China, and Malaysia. The plan of the book is chronological, rather than geographical, which is to say that the author brings the history of each country in turn down to a given date before proceeding with the story. It is truly a history of all Asia, rather than of the individual countries. This order of presentation gives the author an opportunity to make the reader better aware of the interplay between groups, often superficially thought of as isolated units. Each chapter is followed by a list of suggested references, and the whole book is equipped with a copious bibliography. An index, chiefly of proper names, provides reference to the text.

The standpoint of the book is, as is natural, that of the Occidental rather than of the Oriental; and the history of the Far East prior to the arrival of the Portuguese trading ships in Eastern waters occupies little less than half the book. The greater part of the book is concerned with the commercial and political relations of Western powers to the East, with emphasis on the United States. Specialists in particular fields of oriental history will undoubtedly find grounds for criticism in the necessarily sketchy treatment of the oriental civilizations as such. It remains to be said, however, that oriental specialists have hitherto made no great mark on the American consciousness, and that this frankly American-minded work may stand a far greater chance of doing so.

The main test of a textbook is its usability, and here Professor Steiger has unquestionably provided a convenient survey of a very much neglected field of world history. Though perhaps designed primarily for college classes, it should serve as a guide for courses in high schools—and it is hoped that their number is on the increase—which believe that it is not disproportionate to devote a year's study to Far Eastern history. The make-up of the book is perhaps too ponderous for use as a textbook for the average high-school student, but it should prove an invaluable guide and

reference book for the high-school teacher, and for the adult reader an absorbingly interesting introduction to a subject that grows daily more important to the Western world.

GEORGE A. KENNEDY

Yale University

Our American Heritage: From Subject to Citizen. By Lillian S. Coyle and Walter P. Evans. New York: McGraw-Hill Book Co., 1936. Pp. xix, 404. \$1.36.

Intended for junior high-school use, this book, organized in terms of four "units" and twenty topics, is intended to supply merely minimum essentials in terms of facts, with emphasis "on the method of procedure for the pupil" rather than on the content of different topics. The titles of the "units," with the exception of the first on "The Birth of the American Nation," are centered on "freedom"—"Freedom for All Americans," "America's Part in the World's Struggle for Freedom," and "Freedom in America Today." Each topic includes a new type test, problems and questions, and activities. A glossary, a bibliography, a very brief index, and the customary documents are included in appendices. The text proper covers slightly more than three hundred pages in large-size, heavily-leaded print.

The March of a Nation. By Alice C. Cooper and David Fallon. Boston: D. C. Heath & Co., 1935. Pp. xii, 517. \$1.72.

With the current vogue of correlation and integration this book of selections from literature and history, grouped in four parts on a loosely chronological basis, will be welcomed by both English and history teachers. Each selection is introduced by a brief paragraph and is followed by suggestions for study, while suggestions for further reading are appended to each section. The choice of selections seems to be cast in the frame of the American dream; critical analyses and presentations seem to find no place in the volume. The book will be welcomed by intelligent junior and senior high-school pupils as an antidote and supplement to the more prosaic textbooks; less intelligent pupils may surprise themselves and their teachers through the development of a budding interest in history through reading parts of the volume.

Visualized Units in World History. By J. Madison Gathany. Supervised by Thomas J. Murphy and Russell E. Fraser. New York: College Entrance Book Co., 1935. Pp. vi, 316, iii. 50c.

This condensed manual, organized about twenty units, is intended to provide a compact presentation of facts for a rapid review of materials or for use as a student's guide for use in regular courses. Each unit includes a vocabulary, questions, personages and places, dates, and topics for further study.

Children's Catalog (Fourth Edition Revised): *Fifth Supplement 1935.* Compiled by Phyllis Crawford. New York: H. W. Wilson Co., 1935. Pp. vii, 46.

This supplement, with its titles grouped under a dictionary catalog, a classified list, and a listing by grades, is an essential title for persons who are responsible for the guidance of children's reading, from Grade I through Grade VIII.

Plays of American Life. By Fred Eastman. New York: Samuel French, 1934. Pp. ix, 258. \$2.50.

A series of nine plays, all but one in one act, in which certain problems, issues, and conflicts in American life, such as religion—nationalism, spiritual life—acquisitive life, and rural-urban conflict, are presented. They appear to be suitable for use with more mature high-school students.

Current Publications Received

HISTORY

- Arragon, R. F. *The Transition from The Ancient to The Medieval World* (Berkshire Studies in European History). New York: Henry Holt & Co., 1936. Pp. x, 134. \$1.00.
- Bowen, Marjorie. *Peter Porcupine. A Study of William Cobbett, 1762-1835*. New York: Longmans, Green & Co., 1936. Pp. xii, 312. \$3.50.
- Fisher, H. A. L. *A History of Europe. Vol. III, The Liberal Experiment*. Boston: Houghton Mifflin Co., 1936. Pp. xii, 458, xviii. \$4.00.
- Jones, Chester Lloyd. *The Caribbean Since 1900*. New York: Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1936. Pp. xi, 511. \$5.00.
- Wilson, Neill C. *Treasure Express*. New York: Macmillan Co., 1936. Pp. xii, 322. \$2.50.
- Yarborough, Minnie Clare, ed. *The Reminiscences of William C. Preston*. Chapel Hill: University of North Carolina, 1933. Pp. xi, 138. \$3.00.

ECONOMICS

- Angell, Sir Norman. *Raw Materials, Population Pressure, and War*. Boston: World Peace Foundation, 1936. Pp. 46. 75c.
- Matthews, J. B. *Guinea Pigs No More*. New York: Covici-Friede, 1936. Pp. 311. \$2.00.
- Mitchell, Wesley C., ed. *What Veblen Taught. Selections from the Writings of Thorstein Veblen*. New York: Viking Press, 1936. Pp. xlix, 503. \$3.00.

POLITICAL SCIENCE

- Mallory, Walter H., ed. *Political Handbook of the World, 1936*. New York: Harper & Bros. Pp. 207. \$2.50.
- Seymour, Charles. *American Neutrality, 1914-1917*. New Haven: Yale University Press, 1935. Pp. vii, 187. \$2.00.
- Stuart, Graham H. *American Diplomatic and Consular Practice*. New York: D. Appleton-Century Co., 1936. Pp. xi, 560. \$5.00.

SOCIOLOGY

- Davis, Maxine. *The Lost Generation*. New York: Macmillan Co., 1936. Pp. xii, 385. \$2.50.
- Harris, Mary B. *I Knew Them in Prison*. New York: Viking Press, 1936. Pp. xiii, 407. \$3.00.
- Jordan, Helen Mougey; Ziller, M. Louisa; Brown, John Franklin. *Home and Family*. New York: Macmillan Co., 1935. Pp. xix, 426. \$1.60.

EDUCATION

- Association for Education in Citizenship. *Education for Citizenship in Secondary Schools*. New York: Oxford University Press, 1935. Pp. x, 268.
- De Young, Chris A. *Budgeting in Public Schools*. Garden City: Doubleday, Doran & Co., 1936. Pp. xiv, 610. \$3.50.
- Langford, Howard D. *Education and The Social Conflict* (Kappa Delta Pi Research Publications). New York: Macmillan Co., 1936. Pp. xxviii, 210. \$1.75.
- Linder, Roscoe George. *An Evaluation of Courses in Education of a State Teachers College by Teachers in Service* (Contributions to Education, No. 664). New York: Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia University, 1935. Pp. viii, 156. \$1.85.
- Raup, Bruce. *Education and Organized Interests in America*. New York: G. P. Putnam's Sons, 1936. Pp. vi, 238. \$2.50.
- Russell, William F. *Liberty vs. Equality*. New York: Macmillan Co., 1936. Pp. ix, 173. \$2.00.
- Tildsley, John L. *The Mounting Waste of the American Secondary School* (The Inglis Lecture, 1936). Cambridge: Harvard University Press. Pp. 91.

MISCELLANEOUS

Johnsen, Julia E., ed. *The Reference Shelf. Vol. X, Collective Bargaining.* New York: H. W. Wilson Co., 1935. Pp. 261.

Lippmann, Walter and Nevins, Allan, eds. *A Modern Reader. Essays on Present-Day Life and Culture.* Boston: D. C. Heath & Co., 1936. Pp. x, 765. \$2.00.

MATERIAL IN PAPER COVER

ECONOMICS

Goldbloom, Maurice; Herling, John; Seidman, Joel; Yard, Elizabeth (Introduction by Joseph Schlossberg). *Strikes Under The New Deal.* (112 East 19th Street). New York City: League for Industrial Democracy. Pp. 72. 15c.

Moulton, H. G. *Income Distribution Under Capitalism* (The Day and Hour Series of the University of Minnesota, No. 12). Minneapolis: University of Minnesota Press, 1936. Pp. 27. 25c.

INTERNATIONAL RELATIONS

Dean, Vera Micheles. *The Quest for Ethiopian Peace* (Foreign Policy Reports, XI, February 26, 1936). New York: Foreign Policy Association. Pp. 16. 25c a copy; \$5.00 a year.